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ABSTRACT

This paper reviews literature on problems encountered by beginning teachers in the inner city and points out some steps that have been taken in both preservice and inservice teacher education alleviate these problems. While books such as "Death at an Early Age" and "Up the Down Staircase," are briefly reviewed, greater attention is given to research reports, program descriptions, program proposals, and comments by beginning teachers themselves. The section on current programs gives details of 24 programs which have been implemented and briefly describes 24 additional programs for which only limited material was available. The author concludes, from documents examined, that the most important ingredients for successful urban teaching are the attitude of the prospective teacher and early, extensive preservice experience with the realities of the inner city. (A 137-item annotated bibliography is included.) (RT)

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Brief Title:

BEGINNING TEACHERS IN
THE INNER CITY

BEGINNING TEACHERS IN THE INNER CITY: A STUDY OF THE LITERATURE ON THEIR PROBLEMS AND SOME POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS

by
Moira B. Mathieson

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FOREWORD

Teaching in inner-city schools continues to pose special problems for beginning teachers and for teacher educators. A great deal of literature has dealt with this topic during the past decade and this monograph is an attempt to distil some of the essential ideas from this material and to present it in such a way that the voices of the original authors can still be heard, even in a paper of modest size. The juxaposition of differing views may also throw some fresh light on familiar questions, and hopefully the paper will make the material readily available to many, particularly beginning teachers, who would not be able to read all the source documents.

Although at first sight it may appear that the material is essentially oriented towards the problems of black students, both the problems and the suggested solutions apply with equal validity to children of Spanish, Indian or white background, if they live in the cultural deprivation of the ghetto.

An extensive bibliography gives details of all the source material used and serves as a guide to those desiring to read more deeply. This bibliography may be updated by checking recent issues of Research in Education (RIE) and Current Index to Journals in Education (CIJE). Both RIE and CIJE use the same descriptors (index terms). Documents in RIE are listed in blocks according to the clearinghouse code letters which processed them, beginning with the ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult Education (AC) and ending with the ERIC Clearinghouse on Vocational and Technical Education (VT). The clearinghouse code letters, which are listed at the beginning of RIE, appear opposite the ED number at the beginning of each entry. "SP" (School Personnel) designates documents processed by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education; another clearinghouse dealing with material related to this monograph is the ERIC Clearinghouse on the Disadvantaged (UD).

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We hope that our expectations for this publication will be fulfilled: that you will understand the topic better and that you will use ERIC as a tool to further deepen your understanding.

Joel L. Burdin
Director

May 1971

ABOUT ERIC

The Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) forms a nationwide information system established by the U.S. Office of Education, designed to serve and advance American education. Its basic objective is to provide ideas and information on significant current documents (e.g., research reports, articles, theoretical papers, program descriptions, published or unpublished conference papers, newsletters, and curriculum guides or studies) and to publicize the availability of such documents. Central ERIC is the term given to the function of the U.S. Office of Education, which provides policy, coordination, training, funds, and general services to the 20 clearinghouses in the information system. Each clearinghouse focuses its activities on a separate subject-matter area; acquires, evaluates, abstracts, and indexes documents; processes many significant documents into the ERIC system; and publicizes available ideas and information to the education community through its own publications, those of Central ERIC, and other educational media.

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BEGINNING TEACHERS IN THE INNER CITY:
A STUDY OF THE LITERATURE ON THEIR PROBLEMS AND SOME POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS

by Moira B. Mathieson

INTRODUCTION

There may seem to be very little need for further comment on the problems which beset beginning teachers, particularly in the inner city. The justification for this paper is the realization which comes to anyone reading in depth in this field: Although there are a great many documents on the subject and descriptions of many programs which attempt to remedy the defects, a great deal of duplication exists and many of the institutions developing programs seem not to be fully aware of what other people are doing and what their experiences have been.

This paper sets out, therefore, to survey some of the existing literature with particular emphasis on documents in the ERIC system. It falls into six main sections:

1. Public-oriented books, which have received considerable publicity, may, to some extent, have overstated their case. The situations which they described do indeed exist in many schools, but the authors have written in such a white heat of indignation to make their points with the emphasis they feel to be necessary that they have underplayed the successful elements which do exist in many cases. And they have said very little about the many experimental programs which have been in operation now for several years. This section serves to identify some of these publications, but does not attempt to discuss them in any depth.
2. Many less well-known documents deal with the situation in the schools and include the views of beginning teachers as well as of others concerned with teacher education and administration. These are identified and discussed.
3. Certain research studies have attempted to identify more specifically the causes of these recurrent problems and to suggest solutions. These are considered in chronological order, rather than by subject, because of the inevitable overlap in subject matter and because of the insights which chronological treatment can give, both on the developments which have taken place since 1960 and, even more revealingly, the topics which have continued to recur during this period with varying degrees of effectiveness in the proposed treatment.
4. A rather small number of documents can best be described as helpful hints. They give practical suggestions to beginning teachers and deserve at least a brief mention.
5. Probably the most important group of documents are those describing experimental programs which have actually been implemented, and a major section of the paper is devoted to descriptions of them. No comparative evaluation of the various programs has been attempted because of the wide variation in the amount of detailed information available and because some documents describe the situation at the start of a program while others are final reports. However, the

information available should serve to give some idea of the objectives, scope, and methodology involved and certain patterns become apparent as similar ideas occur in programs in different parts of the country.

6. Many of the proposals made deserve consideration, even though they may not yet have been implemented.
   This section deals with such documents.

It should be emphasized that this paper is concerned only with existing documentation. It did not involve any additional research, visits to the programs described, or follow-up surveys to check on the current status of programs, so it is not possible to state with certainty which are still functioning. There are, therefore, certain limitations, but it is hoped that it will serve a useful purpose in pulling together much of the available material on the subject and presenting it in a clear and manageable form.

TRUE CONFESSIONS AND HORROR STORIES

Most people with a professional interest in education probably read one or more of the group of personal experience books, such as *Death at an Early Age, Up the Down Staircase,* and *The Way It Spozed To Be,* which have appeared in the past few years. Although the degree of anguish varies, each book leaves a strong impression of educational disaster and of a situation in which a few courageous, far-sighted teachers struggle, usually unsuccessfully, against the overwhelming tide of entrenched, conservative, and intolerant administrators and older teachers. These books have all the fascination of a good horror story. There is no question that they contain much truth that needs to be said to a wide public, but they do not tell the whole story.

One must in addition consider the extensive body of material which, because it is set in a more muted tone, does not command so much attention, but which for that same reason may carry even more weight. First are the voices of the beginning teachers themselves. One, writing in her diary after several months' experience, says:

> January 11. I really do feel I was totally unprepared to teach when I started this fall. I've made so many mistakes, mistakes which only a little experience might have prevented. Learning by doing seems an inefficient way of solving my problems. I just wish that I had a book or something which listed, say, 25 tricks in discipline, 25 do's and don'ts in tests, a method of treating late papers. Helpful hints--that's what I really needed more than anything else (81:16).

A very modest request, it might seem, but did her college years provide her with no clues as to where she might find such help or suggest to her that successful discipline is more than a matter of knowing the right tricks?

She might have found useful Estelle Fuchs' book, *Teachers Talk*, based on materials gathered between 1965 and 1967 by Project TRUE (Teacher Resources for Urban Education) at Hunter College, City University of New York (41). The author explains the origin of the book in its introduction.

> As part of the research endeavor, a sample of the graduates of the education program who were in their first semester of teaching in inner-city elementary schools were invited to record their experiences. Each Saturday morning during their first semester, fourteen of the teachers who had been assigned to "special service" schools, i.e., schools in deprived areas of the city, with high minority group populations, reading retardation, and conditions generally considered "difficult," described their experiences in intensive, taped interviews. They responded in detail to questions concerning lessons; interaction with pupils, teachers, supervisors, and parents; reactions to school regulations; curriculum materials; and other professionally relevant social issues such as strikes and school boycotts (41: ix).

Each section of the book consists of a series of anecdotes from the tapes dealing with a specific topic--the first day, culture shock, lesson plans, parents--followed by a discussion based on social science theory which offers suggestions on ways of handling the problems.

Another first-year teacher in a letter to her college dean sums up her view of the problem succinctly, "Please to God, if you are going to send new teachers into urban schools, prepare them a bit more than I was prepared" (17: 2). Not all the reactions are so desperate, although they still suggest that the preparation received in college has been found wanting.

> One thing that I wish I was more prepared for was the general attitude of the students . . . they couldn't care less about school in a lot of cases. You have to learn by actually teaching. You can't have a course on it because you can't teach teachers on how students are going to behave or how they are going to react. This is something you are going to have to find out for yourself (113: 7).

The situation was summed up by Richard Graham, formerly Director of the Teacher Corps.

> [The] lack of preparation was comic in *Up the Down Staircase*, but the real results aren't. . . . Teaching kids who aren't programmed to learn what you're teaching is a tough job. These kids need good teachers, teachers who know that these kids can learn and who know how to help them (44: 50).

A TENTATIVE DIAGNOSIS OF THE PROBLEMS

As soon as research goes beyond the books intended for a broad, popular readership to writings by educators for their peers, it becomes clear that there is no shortage of theories on the causes of problems experienced by so many beginning teachers.

Teacher educators and the colleges and training institutions come in for a considerable amount of criticism. In the report *Listening to Teachers*, published by the Research and Development Center for Teacher Education at the University of Texas, the authors found that "college instructors frequently gear their instruction to issues that have no immediate relevancy for prospective teachers" (43: 1). The same point is made in *The Real World of the Beginning Teacher* which is the report of the Nineteenth National TEPS Conference in 1965. Robert N. Bush, professor of education at Stanford University, says, "The root problems seem to be, on the one hand, the gap that exists between conditions in the colleges and the way college professors view education, and on the other, conditions in the schools and the way teachers view education" (10: 10). Even where this dichotomy does not exist, the scheduling of education courses may mean that the student is not learning at the right time and cannot relate his lectures to his experience.

> Over the years teacher education has been improved in a lot of ways, too--not all of them so little. But, by and large, it still has one terrible flaw: it puts the "theory" first and practice last--and you can't change that gradually. . . .
>
> Out of that one flaw arise a host of serious consequences at every stage of the teacher education program. In the end it brings you a beginning teacher who is "green" as to the realities of the schools, scared, awkward, and all too often shocked and disillusioned. We have grown so used to this that we think it is inevitable. It is not. It is only an artifact of a certain style of preparation.
>
> Thus far we have taken as "given" a certain kind of product coming to us from the teachers college, and we have concentrated on how to induct that product into our school. But maybe that product coming to us from the colleges could be different in the first place, fitting in more naturally, easier to induct. And maybe the change in the college program would facilitate a better school-college partnership. . . .
>
> Some of the weaknesses in the usual arrangement are so obvious that anyone can spot them. When the students is taking those theory courses, he has too small a base of reality to which to relate them. He doesn't even recognize the great problems with which the psychologist for curriculum professor is struggling, and so he often decides that the course has no worthwhile content--and turns off his brain. Later, when he hits student teaching and needs a theoretical background desperately, it somehow "isn't there." Either he never really learned it at all or he fails to see the relationship between the hard specifics facing him now and the psychological generalizations he learned a year or so ago (132: 137-38).

Russell Heddendorf, in his 1969 doctoral dissertation, argued that the loss of the original religious foundation for education has resulted in a shift in the teacher's role. His research indicates that the internal control elements of motivation and commitment have weakened and that the emphasis in teacher education is now on the professional image, methods, and skill.

> Critics of present teacher training programs are quick to point out their limitations in training the teacher. . . . The problems of the routine procedure of teaching are not always referred to in professional courses. For instance, the teacher receives no training in helping children to be interested in ideas. . . . The teacher's perception of a unique classroom situation, then, appears to be the critical factor upon which his role performance is built (49: 36).

A report on an inservice training program prepared by the Elk Grove Training and Development Center makes a similar point.

> Most teachers are exposed to the theory of child development, child behavior, and learning theory along with a host of other such courses in their preparational training. Such experiences provide a teacher with a base for further development in this dimension, but the only real way to nurture and develop this end is on the firing line in the classroom in actual situations involving interaction. In all too many instances, teachers become safe and secure in their skill dimension, with little growth taking place in the affective dimension. An imbalance soon results and the art of teaching becomes less personalized. In an impersonalized teaching atmosphere, the many personal aspects and attributes of a child are neither appealed to, nor included in the teaching-learning process.
>
> Surrounded by a complex educational system and large school staff, the beginning teacher feels the need for support against impersonality and the threat of isolation. Some veteran teachers, unfortunately, solve this problem by rutting themselves into a secure, but often stale, teaching formula--a formula which allows little, if any, human response to human needs (60: 5-6).

The principal objectives of the Elk Grove program were designed in an attempt to remedy such a situation and are described as:

1. To expose teachers to "humanizing experiences" which would result in their being more willing to look at their own behavior and its effect on the atmosphere as well as the behavior of the group.
2. To develop in the teachers more interest in individualizing instruction thru better understanding of the individual and his needs.
3. To interest, encourage, and involve teachers in assessing their own behavior in their classroom settings in light of a better understanding of their own behavioral objectives for the class (60: 14).

Roy Edelfelt believes that the objectives of inservice teacher education also need to be reconsidered.

> The present separation of educational programs for prospective teachers and for in-service teachers assumes that a person prepares for teaching in a college or university, and after four years of training is ready for practice with more or less complete competence. In-service training programs are adjuncts of initial preparation, often related in haphazard fashion to undergraduate training and the

professional job being performed. Too many teachers take a master's degree in guidance, administration or other nonteaching emphasis yet have no intention of leaving the classroom. Even when in-service collegiate study is directly related to a teacher's job, it is seldom responsive to his real needs. There is almost no study and analysis of teacher performance to the end that in-service education will enhance strengths and reduce weaknesses. In-service education is largely something someone else does to teachers. When the teacher is involved in deciding what to learn in self-study or planned travel, there is often no recognition of his professional growth. If in-service development is directed at perfecting teaching skills, there is usually no assessment or reward for accomplishment (31: 95-96).

A conversation between the superintendent of high schools in Phoenix, Arizona, and a representative group of his administrative associates included the following comment:

> I think the beginning teacher is not adequately prepared. Too many want to be college teachers. They take great pride in their subject matter mastery and are not concerned with adjusting curriculum to human needs, or responding to human factors. These teachers experience difficulty because they are not prepared to deal with the total responsibility encountered as a result of being teachers (106: 31).

This is the first of many comments on what may prove to be one of the most serious problems--the tendency to concentrate on subject matter rather than on people and to forget that the schools and the teachers should be there for the benefit of the children. If the basic fact that the school systems have no other purpose than to serve the children is always remembered, many apparent conflicts will prove to be fictitious.

A paper read by Richard Larson at a conference on Teacher Education in a New Context, at Madison, Wisconsin, in May 1967, expressed most outspoken criticism of present methods of teacher education.

> . . . teachers are trained to become uninfluential automatons; drill masters covering safe and irrelevant content quickly forgotten; non-status functionaries who mistrust the central office, who procure expedient education from the veteran across the hall, and who believe in the sanctity of arbitrary standards, intelligence quotients, the third-grade concept, cleanliness, and wedded motherhood (71: 15).

The director of a Boston Upward Bound program, speaking at a conference for student teachers and beginning teachers of the disadvantaged, said, "You can't introduce teachers to new ways of teaching kids by using the old ways of teaching teachers. Teachers tend to perpetuate in their classrooms the way in which they themselves have been taught" (65: 11). Or, in other words:

> Teachers tend to teach in the manner or way in which they have been taught. This is a generally accepted belief in teacher education and there is some research support for this belief. If we accept

this belief, then it should follow that teacher-educators should, in various specific ways appropriate to an adult population, instruct prospective teachers in the manner in which they themselves are expected to perform. Unfortunately, many professional education classes are conducted via lectures which exhort the students to individualize instruction.

Prospective teachers should be involved as immediately as is practical in a variety of teaching and school experiences. There is a good deal of research to support the contention that one of the first experiences that a prospective teacher needs, and would like to have, is to attempt to teach (113: 16).

All the blame, however, is not laid to colleges and teacher educators although there is a recurring suspicion that the colleges, in both their programs and their selection of students, as well as in their tendency to grant degrees to everyone who lasts through the necessary number of courses, are probably the origin of many later difficulties. The schools themselves contribute their own share of disillusionment. In the more fortunate situations, the initial confusion may not last too long.

The first three months of teaching appear to be a highly emotional period of scrambling in the classroom. The next three months are a period of quiet adjustment and development of basic classroom routines. The final three months of the year are perceived as a period of accelerating growth in educational planning and instructional skill (53: 2).

Although it is probable that even this kind of induction could be made smoother, it is better than the experience which faces many beginning teachers.

. . . it is clear that beginning teachers find it very difficult, if not impossible, to operate in a sink-or-swim situation. They are not prepared for the realities of the classroom; they say so forcefully, and they want help. . . . But the beginner also needs the advice of an experienced teacher, whose own load is reduced, to work with him on classroom problems. This person should not be a supervisor, but a non-threatening helper who teaches in the same building, who possesses superior classroom skills, and who wants to share his knowledge with others. It is critical that he not be asked to evaluate the beginners or to reveal his knowledge of them in any way to the administration. Initially this person will provide the security and support necessary for the beginner to adjust successfully to teaching and later will serve as a professional model and partner in the pursuit of excellent teaching (118: 82-83).

This same story is constantly repeated.

It became apparent that the beginning teachers, regardless of the kind of college preparation they received, the subject they taught, or the school in which they found themselves, shared common concerns relating to their basic adjustment to teaching. Typical preoccupations were distress over the lack of direction provided by the

administration during the first few days of school; being asked to teach outside their subject fields; having to teach in several rooms; establishing a working relationship with the principal, department heads, and occasionally resentful faculty members; teaching slow learners; handling discipline problems; preparing and grading tests; assigning homework; and motivating their students (118: 77).

It appears rather plain that young teachers typically come to their work brimming with enthusiasm and good intentions, highly aware of individual differences. Then they encounter the weird realities of the classroom . . . a teacher soon discovers that the more diligent she is in observing differences and individual needs, the more headaches and frustrations she creates for herself. To maintain mental health (and an alarming percentage of teachers don't--not to mention those who quickly withdraw because "they can't take it"), the teacher must adopt an "I do what I can" attitude. We can speculate that this may be a main factor behind the fierce resistance of many teachers to having any adult observe them or share their room. . . . In the class-and-grade school, the teacher comes to fear any true, vigorous recognition of individuals. The classroom may be rough, but at least it is familiar, private, and hers--and in these senses, protective (47: 304).

These are generalized descriptions of the situation, but there is no shortage of information on specific causes of concern. There is the inevitable insecurity and unfamiliarity of a new job and the knowledge that one's capabilities are being judged.

> I don't know how we can discuss a beginning teacher and his relationships to the administrative-supervisory personnel without mentioning the fact that he is painfully aware that he is going to be evaluated for further employment or termination (106: 36).

Much more demoralizing is the fact the new teachers are generally given the difficult classes which no one else wants. "The beginner faces the more difficult classes of slow, often bored, and sometimes belligerent students" (87: 3).

> The work load of the beginning teacher is, in most districts, no lighter than that of his more experienced colleagues. In fact the beginner often gets the difficult situations which the older teacher avoids. Such policies make professional survival difficult and for many impossible (23: 7).

Not only is the classroom situation likely to be difficult, but the beginning teachers may also find it hard to obtain the help and support which they need. "Most beginners need assistance far greater than that traditionally offered by the department chairman if they are to carry out even [a] lightened assignment in the most effective manner" (87: 4).

> New teachers have frequently said to me that one who displays too much enthusiasm for his work or who proposes innovations in teaching practice is likely to encounter indifference, disapproval and occasionally outright hostility. Even if adminstrative support is forthcoming, a new teacher could well wonder if it is wise to persist with

an idea in the face of such reactions from fellow teachers. The impression I get is that the new teacher is unhappy not so much because his ideas are rejected but rather because so often they seem not to be taken at all seriously.

A new teacher is even more uneasy and disenchanted with the profession when he sees forces effectively mobilized to resist and block badly needed changes. Under circumstances such as these, which may be more common than we care to admit, an eager and somewhat impatient new teacher can find himself very much alone, effectively cut off from easy communication with a considerable portion of the faculty (100: 149).

As Howard Seymour points out, "A new teacher with some innovations in mind and with great enthusiasm and optimism threatens some of the older teachers to the point where the beginner is really resented" (106: 41). And the results may involve more than temporary unhappiness "even where tenure provides a semblance of security, a teacher who displays originality and creativity can be made so uncomfortable that he finally leaves the profession" (23: 4-5).

In schools where the teacher is still islanded in her own classroom and left to her own resources, routine details can continue to cause difficulties over a long period.

I think [discipline] is probably the one area in which new teachers have less security than any other. They realize they have a problem. They haven't had training in what to do and, consequently, they do run into trouble; usually either by being too rigid or by trying to be too friendly with the student and, therefore, being lax in their discipline.

Another problem the new teacher encounters without preparation is meeting with parents to talk with them about their children's problem. They have not had sufficient experience and they need sympathetic assistance from department chairmen, or maybe from another teacher, when this occurs (106: 32, 35).

The gifted beginning teacher with a deep commitment to her profession might well find this discouraging, but a large number of teachers have their own problems which add to their troubles and which raise the question of whether they should be in the classroom at all. A Geneva College student quoted by Russell Heddendorf believed that "about one-third of all teachers enjoy helping others learn" (49: 152).

The [inadequate] teacher tends to think in terms of his status, the correctness of the position he takes in classroom matters, and the subject matter to be covered rather than in terms of what the pupil needs, feels, knows, and can do (60: 27).

If we accept the idea that the essential task facing any teacher is to help and encourage people to learn, it may well be concluded that teachers with the above attitude should not be teaching. Such teachers tend to be blind to their own shortcomings and prefer to blame difficulties and failures on the children.

> Teachers, as a group, are evidently more concerned about behavior problems than academic problems, since they list behavior problems as their biggest problems in the classroom. . . . Rarely did teachers identify themselves, or their instructional activities and materials, as a possible cause of the child's problem behavior (43: 5-6).

It is probably no exaggeration to say that most teachers begin their working life under less than ideal conditions.

> Much teaching done by beginners, therefore, is done under stress conditions. The reactions to stress, and the resulting defence mechanisms, are often inappropriate and sometimes crippling. If the beginner has pride and sets standards for himself, his work is never done--he can never know enough or plan enough, and he seldom has a feeling of completion or success. All too often the reality of his experience is devastating--nothing like what he had been led to expect during teacher training.
>
> Common sense indicates that the beginning teacher needs assistance if he is to do a good job. We have got to stop kidding ourselves--teacher training institutions, however excellent, won't and can't prepare teachers for the full and immediate responsibilities they face the day they enter the classroom in September (56: 130-31).

Many problems may be solved in a hit-or-miss fashion so that they escape the notice of administrators, but they may have highly undesirable results for the teacher and her pupils.

1. Almost all beginning teachers report a great many problems and difficulties in their initial teaching experience. These persist throughout the first year for many but are solved or ameliorated by most--probably resulting in many unknown and undetermined consequences for students and teachers.
2. Teachers feel that they are provided little assistance in their professional induction into teaching. Although they feel that the schools make a modest effort in this direction, a large majority of the beginning teachers feel that the assistance does not cover their most critical problems and furthermore is rarely available at the time when it is needed most.
3. A majority of beginning teachers feel that much of the college preparation they received lacks relevance to and provides little preparation for the most critical problems of their initial teaching experience (113: 8).

"Is it possible we are paying too little attention to the demands of the first job" (101: 710)? This seems to be a question which deserves considerable study.

One immediate result of the unsatisfactory initial experience is that many new teachers disappear from the profession even before the end of their first year. If these dropouts were only those who realize, belatedly, that they have chosen the wrong profession, this would represent a financial loss but a human gain. Unfortunately, many dropouts appear to be idealistic

and enthusiastic teachers who would have much to offer, but who are unable to tolerate the conditions they find, the lack of understanding of the children, and the attitudes of the administration and "city hall."

> Past experience has demonstrated that many potentially valuable teachers become disenchanted and leave teaching before giving themselves an opportunity to test their abilities adequately. Frequently, those who remain learn by trial and error on-the-job without benefit of an immediate resource person who could provide direction and concrete assistance based on experience and long exposure to the various situations and problems that are present in the classroom (39: 1).

> The symptomatic clue that all is not well is the high drop-out rate during the first few year. . . . Over half those teaching in their first year do not intend to be teaching five years later (10: 7).

Those who remain may include many of the less desirable teachers who will sometimes hang on because teaching, in spite of the difficulites, is the best job that they can find.

> The situation is even more portentous when one faces a strong suspicion and some evidence that the beginners who are least likely to drop out are those who are least qualified to teach. This group, having no degree and no regular credentials, seems to have the deepest commitment to teaching as a career (23: 2).

Arthur Corey has said, "It may be safe to venture the assertion that few teachers quit because they do not like teaching" (23: 3). If this statement has any validity, then the other causes for their leaving need investigation. It directly contradicts that Geneva College student already quoted (see above, page 9). A possible explanation is that although the majority of teachers may not be involved in the active and demanding work of encouraging learning, only the minority dislike their daily routine enough to leave it. Whatever the reasons, if they are not discovered and remedied, there will continue to be a loss of many of those teachers most needed in the classrooms.

> This failure to realize a teacher must deal with the whole student . . . is the result of our emphasis on teaching subject matter and the idea that if you dispense certain information to certain minds you are a successful teacher. We may as well be frank about it; there are many beginning teachers who really believe they have only one job to do and that is to teach their subject. Frankly, they are not concerned with the private or even the school life of the students outside the classroom. They simply aren't concerned. They haven't been oriented that way. This makes their first-year adjustment a difficult one (106: 35).

> There is little doubt that American public education is in a period of crisis. Although the system is obviously functioning under adverse circumstances, minor modifications alone will not resolve the problems at hand. There is an immediate need for changes in the ways teachers and administrators apply their skills in the system (135: 194).

11

In the end, the responsibility extends far beyond the colleges and the school systems. "By and large, we get just about what the majority of us want and will pay for" (97: 6).

The problems which have been considered so far can apply to any school and are by no means limited to the inner city. They are, however, accentuated there possibly as much by the teacher's ignorance of city life and expectation of trouble as by factors inherent in the community.

A study of the literature on teaching the urban disadvantaged can be a profoundly discouraging experience. The situation frequently appears to be so hopeless that almost any suggested solution must be doomed to failure, either because it can only serve as a temporary palliative, or because the reorganization involved would be so drastic that it would not be accepted. Some of these proposals will be considered in a later section, but for the moment the problems which relate specifically to the inner city situation will receive comment.

H. Millard Clements, in a talk suggesting that the responsibility for the inferiority of inner-city education be placed, not on inherent characteristics of the children, but on the school system, said, "I hope you will be persuaded that there is a strong basis for asserting that the city schools are guilty of chronic malpractice" (16: 8). A statement made in 1962 by Vernon Haubrich still has much validity today.

> The professional sequence, in most cases, views the content of teacher preparation as a universal, and applicable in all normal school situations. Teacher preparation in college classrooms and student teaching in school X has point and substance in schools Y,Z, etc. Student teaching is probably the culmination of the sequence, and a licence is issued to the graduate. He is "prepared." Kids are kids (48: 247).

"It is a paradox of mammoth dimension that teacher education programs do not prepare today's teachers for the experience of one-third of our classrooms" (71: 16).

Richard Wisniewski has sketched a portrait of teaching careers in urban schools, including the first-hand experiences of teachers and administrators.

> The majority of people preparing to teach appear to have made up their minds long before they entered their training, that they would prefer to teach in "nice" areas, which generally means areas with green lawns and white residents. Even though efforts are underway at some urban universities to redirect teachers to the inner city, the basic facts of life in teacher education have not changed. Most of our beginning teachers do not wish to become involved in the inner city. Programs to recruit people seeking to develop capable inner-city teachers need far more support if the pattern of avoidance is to be seriously challenged. At this juncture, most schools of education have rarely begun to satisfy the great need in this area (135: 177).

Robert Bush describes the reactions of the teachers when they first arrive in the schools.

> The main charge leveled by both those who stay in teaching and those who leave is that the two worlds, that of the college and that of the schools, are different, often contradictory, and that what happens during preparation does not fit one for what he finds in practice. The theme has infinite variations. A popular one just now is that prospective teachers, all middle class, are trained only on middle-class, quiet, conforming youngsters . . . and cannot stand the shock of reality when they land in a slum school in the decaying part of the city. Another image is that the new teachers come from the preparing institutions, their "Dewey" eyes filled with dreams of innovation: ungraded schools, teams of teachers harmoniously dividing up the labor, offering the new curriculum in carpeted, wall-less schools filled with acoustical perfume. They then suddenly go to pieces when confronted with the reality of overcrowded, self-contained classrooms, with only meager teaching materials, limited budgets, seniority practices, and heavy extra-class and playground duties. In far too many schools the beginner is hazed and finds himself the victim of an ancient system of seniority that we have allowed unwittingly to grow up (10: 7-8).

In many cases the newly graduated teachers are totally unprepared to understand the children they are expected to teach.

> I am compelled to make reference to the fact that there are problems in finding teachers who are adequately prepared in meeting a youngster's needs in the inner-city, teachers who are able to relate to and understand the inner-city child. I feel that this is one problem area for our first year people (106: 30).

Again, the words from 1962 can still be applied.

> Unfortunately, we have been training our teachers for essentially a middle-class world of white students, and many of them do not grow up to work in such a world. We must begin to re-evaluate our teacher training procedure and program. It may be that we have been turning people out as accredited teachers even though they are ill-prepared to function in so many of the schools to which they may be assigned in the slums of the city (97: 20).

> Some serious questions are raised about the adequacy of traditional teacher-preparation as a source for the insights, understanding, and attitudes needed for working with children from culturally disadvantaged homes and neighborhoods. [Vernon F. Haubrich] suggests that such programs carry no message to student teachers to practice-teach in so-called "difficult schools" nor to seek appointments there (95: 238).

In their introduction to a program designed to improve the teacher's understanding of these children, Grant Clothier and James Lawson make the following comment:

> There is an inadequate basis for communication and understanding. Teachers will tend to see pupils as shiftless, lazy, dishonest, disrespectful, and immoral. Pupils are quick to sense these feelings and may become either antagonistic or apathetic. The teacher becomes disenchanted and the pupils alienated (17: 4).

A TEPS-sponsored project interviewed 312 beginning teachers in 12 states and found that although the majority considered that their undergraduate general education and preparation in their field of academic specialization had been adequate, their courses in professional education were too theoretical and had little relevance to actual classroom practice. "Many of the teachers felt unable to understand or cope with educational problems stemming from socioeconomic conditions and backgrounds different from their own. Middle-class communities and parents were generally regarded more favorably" (51: 21).

Because of this lack of preparation, many students will not consider appointment to inner-city schools. The brighter graduates are those who have the widest choice, so that those who eventually go to the inner city may, in too many cases, be taking the job simply because nothing better is available.

Many factors tend to cause the teacher to reject appointment in depressed areas, and among these are:

1. Large numbers of in-migrant children, who have special needs, will face the incoming teacher, and, for a wide variety of reasons, the teacher tends to reject this kind of situation.
2. The incoming teacher probably rejects the situation because of an inability to comprehend, understand, and cope with multiple problems of language development, varying social norms, habits not accepted by the teacher, behavior which is often not success-oriented, lack of student "cooperation," and achievement levels well below expectancies of teachers.
3. The distance one lives from the culturally deprived neighborhood and a fear of going through the neighborhood surely have been contributing factors in the schools' inability to recruit teachers.
4. There seem to be gaps in the orientation and preparation of teachers for urban schools, which leaves the new teacher "at sea" with respect to methods, curriculum, and approaches to the "discipline" problem (48: 246-47).

On the other hand, there are the graduates of innovative programs who have the desire and ability to succeed in the inner city, but who are faced with different problems.

> It is my impression that very many--perhaps the majority--of well-trained new teachers expressing the will to work in the inner city are lost among the old personnel and buried under prevailing practices that emasculate their will and vitiate their special training (42: 292).

As J. W. Getzels told the American Association of School Adminstrators in 1967, "In the inner city, the school is unrelated to the community in

which it is located, and neither the school nor the community is related to the university, even when it is across the street" (42: 288).

One proposed solution is the training of students from disadvantaged areas to become teachers in inner-city schools, but this idea also runs into snags. "Many teachers do come from a deprived area of their home city originally, but by the time they finish their college education they have grown away from their environment. They have lost contact with inner-city problems" (106: 31). Although these teachers would have no difficulty in understanding the culture in which the children live, in many instances they would have little tolerance for it. There are few people so unsympathetic towards a way of life as those who have succeeded, often at considerable personal sacrifice, in fighting their way out of it.

In spite of the discouraging tone of much of this literature, many authors appreciate how anxious a number of teachers are to do a good job in spite of all the difficulties.

> Most teachers now teaching disadvantaged children do have sympathy for them. They realize the effects of impoverished home life. They know the future of these kids looks bleak. But many of them don't know how to get to these kids, or how to help them learn.
>
> Just having your heart in the right place won't help a ten-year-old read--if he hasn't learned yet. You need something more, such as experience with other ten-year-olds who have difficulty and contact with good master teachers (not just one, but several) who have different techniques, methods, and styles (44: 52).

A basic and profound lack of understanding of the ghetto culture is often to blame for this situation.

> The teacher does not readily comprehend that it is he as a teacher in the inner city who is disadvantaged, not his children. In the absence of this recognition, there is a tendency among teachers to fault the child's culture, and, indeed, the child himself for the problems he experiences in the school, and little if any attention is given to the possibility that the school may be at fault and that perhaps as an educational system it has not tried to build its programs around the strengths the child's inner-city culture has given to him. Thus, the problem soon becomes a cumulative one for the educational system. The teacher is not able to teach the children in the inner city because his culture has not given him the opportunity for developing the skills needed for this kind of success, and the teacher, apparently unaware of this experimental lag in his background, tends not only to form invalid judgments concerning the children's abilities for learning, but additionally, fails to draw upon the cultural experiences and skills the children do have, as a basis for bringing about the occurrence of successful learning in the inner-city classrooms (78: 1).

The following sections may offer some tentative answers to a basic question which still remains.

> Now that our teachers are better educated, why aren't they better prepared to deal with our new immigrants? Why do so many of our young teachers experience a feeling of "cultural shock" when they are appointed to their first job? Why do so many teachers discard what they learned at college and become the kind of teachers their colleges refuse to accept as cooperating teachers to whom student teachers can be entrusted (101: 708-09)?

SOME RESEARCH STUDIES

A number of research studies on the beginning teacher have been produced in the past ten years. In 1961 Ward Mason prepared an extensive report on public school beginning teachers during the period 1956-57, which is chiefly interesting now for the light it throws on the developments which have taken place since then (77).

The national median salary for beginning teachers in 1956 was $3,500, with a range from $2,700 in the upper Southeast (defined as Tennessee, Kentucky, West Virginia, and Virginia) to $4,000 on the West Coast. The average starting salary paid to college graduates in all fields was $4,596, so that it is not surprising to find that the item considered as least satisfactory by beginning teachers was their salary, especially when compared to that in other occupations open to people with the same level of education. Other sources of dissatisfaction were the maximum salary attainable and the length of time needed to reach peak salary. At the other end of the scale, the greatest satisfaction was expressed with the teacher's relations with fellow teachers, superiors, students, and parents, and the fairness with which duties were distributed in the school. Topics which have since attained major significance, such as pupil attentiveness and discipline, community attitude, supervision, and teaching load, all occupy positions midway on the scale, indicating that they did not arouse strong feelings one way or the other at that time.

The beginning teachers listed the values for which they looked in their career in the following order:

1. It should be helpful to others.
2. It should utilize their abilities and aptitudes.
3. It should involve work with people.
4. It should offer a secure future.
5. It should be creative and original.
6. It should provide opportunities to exercise leadership.
7. It should offer status and prestige.
8. It should be free of supervision.
9. It should offer adventure.
10. It should provide a good deal of money.

"From these findings emerges a picture of beginning teachers as persons desiring to work with people toward humanitarian ends, while finding expression for their abilities and creative instincts, in a position affording a reasonable degree of security" (77: 72).

These beginning teachers of the 1950's, their idealism now muted by family responsibilities and the enjoyment of a reasonable standard of living, are today's established teachers, but they find themselves in a radically different situation. There are students who do not accept their authority, parents who want more voice in the way schools are run, inner-city communities which are much more aware of their problems and ready to take direct action to remedy them, and at least a percentage of intensely idealistic teachers who have had a very different upbringing and training than their elders. It is small wonder that these teachers feel threatened.

The New York State University College at Brockport in 1965 published a study designed to analyze the problems of the first year teacher (9). One hundred sixty-three graduates teaching in secondary and elementary schools responded to a 117-item questionnaire which was divided into seven sections: discipline, evaluation, methods, parent relations, personal, planning, and routine and materials. In the responses the problem categories were ranked in the following order of importance: (a) methods, (b) evaluation, (c) discipline, (d) parent relations, (e) routine and materials, and (f) personal. No special planning problems were listed. The specific problems found to be most significant under each heading were:

Methods

1. Involving many of the children in group discussion;
2. Getting students to do homework;
3. Not knowing what to do with students who finish early;
4. Overly stressing grades for motivation;
5. Relating the subject meaningfully to children;
6. Not knowing how to deal with reading problems;
7. Having work for some children while working with other groups and individuals;
8. Introducing a new topic and obtaining high interest;
9. Differentiating instruction among the slow, average, and gifted children in classes; and
10. Having students not willing to work.

Evaluation

1. Not knowing how to evaluate objectives;
2. Judging children's progress in terms of the teacher's aims and purposes;
3. Feeling uncomfortable about giving failing grades; and
4. Involving pupils in self-evaluation.

Discipline

1. Having students see the relationship between undesirable behavior and consequences;
2. Having children maintain quiet while working independently; and
3. Finding ways to integrate isolated, disliked children in group activities.

Parent Relations

1. Discussing with parents their children's achievement;

2. Having trouble interpreting children's capabilities to parent;
3. Helping a student with a destructive home situation;
4. Getting parents to take an interest in their children's behavior; and
5. Telling parents that their children have problems.

Routine and Materials

1. Needing help in selecting instruction materials;
2. Finding films and filmstrips relating to the area being studied;
3. Ordering, securing, and accounting for supplies and materials;
4. Finding reading materials for readers one or two years below grade level; and
5. Having a distaste for grading papers.

Personal

1. Lacking enthusiasm for a subject; and
2. Being impatient with students.

Of the graduates approached, 119 did not respond to the questionnaire, and it is possible that these non-responders may have had more problems than those who did reply.

> Results of the current study are being used to plan specific pre-service experiences to which students will be exposed in an effort to determine whether such exposure will alter the number, intensity or kind of problem perceived by 1967 graduates. Presently each of the 35 significant problems is being simulated and built into a special simulation program.
>
> One of the major obstacles to converting the problems to simulated incidents is in determining what the expression of each problem meant to the respondents. Presently this obstacle is being attacked with the help of classroom teachers and further statistical analysis (9: 239).

A 1968 report continues the story of the Brockport research report (25).

> Broadly stated the purpose of the study was to (1) examine the training techniques of simulation in order to judge its effectiveness for presenting critical teaching problems and (2) determine whether or not exposure to simulated critical teaching problems has any observable effect on the participant's teaching behavior (25: 1-2).

There were three main phases to the study: (a) identification of critical teaching problems; (b) development of a simulated fifth grade situation; and (c) testing the effects of the simulation experience on student teaching. In phase one, 163 of the 282 first-year graduates of the College completed a self-report instrument. From this, 32 major problems were identified, of which the 10 most critical were:

1. Handling the constantly disrupting child;
2. Having students not willing to work;

3. Not knowing how to deal with reading problems;
4. Helping a student with a destructive home situation;
5. Not knowing what to do with students who finish early;
6. Having a distaste for grading papers;
7. Having chilren maintain quiet while working independently, and integrating the isolated disliked child;
9. Having students see relationship between undesirable behavior and consequences; and
10. Differentiating instruction among the slow, average, and gifted children in class.

> It is of interest to note that in the majority of the problem areas identified by teachers little, if any, help is provided in the usual pre-service programs. The help which is provided is rarely problem-centered since problems are not the whetstone of teacher education classes (25: 8).

In phase two, the 32 problems were developed into incidents which were presented through video tapes, role plays, and written materials. A schedule for presenting incidents and a problem-solving method were also developed. In phase three a pre-post-test control group design was used to measure the effects of simulation.

> The hypothesis stated that, if beginning teachers are given pre-service opportunities to encounter identifiable problems of beginning teachers and to develop solutions for them, then . . . such problems will be less numerous than if they are not so encountered (25: 45).
>
> The response of the students . . . indicates that the participants felt that simulation training was very enjoyable, realistic, very helpful, much more meaningful than lectures, and was as valuable as is the first two weeks of student teaching. In addition, the group's responses indicate that they felt involved in the contrived situations, that the discussions were very valuable in developing their own concepts of teaching, that the simulation experiences were very helpful in aiding them to develop methods of coping with classroom problems, and finally that they would recommend simulation training to their friends (25: 77).

The following conclusions were reached from this study.

1. The major conclusion to be drawn . . . is that problems of beginning teachers can be identified which are satisfactory for use in developing simulated incidents.
2. Development of a role simulation appears to be feasible for colleges or school districts through the use of materials modeled on an existing situation and video tape recordings.
3. The simulation training proved to be at least as effective as an equal period of student teaching in the areas of attitude change, confidence, teaching behavior, and amount of time needed to assume full teaching responsibility as a student teacher, but the students who underwent simulator training experienced significantly fewer teaching problems as reported by their supervising teachers than did the control group students.

4. Student became highly involved and stimulated by the simulation (25: 102).

A good deal of space has been given to this research, because it appears to have one great virtue, not mentioned in the report, in that it enables the students to work through their most serious problems before they become involved with children in live classrooms. It is far better for them to make their mistakes during simulation experiences in the college, than with children who may not have an opportunity to recover from the results of these mistakes.

> [Another research project reported in 1965] was concerned with the association between the student teaching locale, the present job locale, and the congruence of student teaching and job locale with the perceived difficulties of beginning teachers. The subjects were 136 of the 191 first year teachers of the June 1963 class of Queens College. The instrument consisted of 70 items covering seven areas, and asked for responses ranging from a rating of 1 (cannot solve) through 6 (do not consider this a problem). The perceived problem areas in descending order of difficulty were:
>
> 1. Discipline.
> 2. Methods of teaching.
> 3. Relations with parents.
> 4. Evaluation.
> 5. Classroom routine.
> 6. Materials and resources.
> 7. Planning.
>
> The rankings were quite similar to those obtained in a study of June 1960 graduates except for the area of Planning. Average responses ranged from "somewhat difficult" to "easy to handle," again resembling the results of the 1960 study.
>
> Whether their student teaching experiences were part of a special program, in special service schools of New York City, or in regular New York City and suburban schools, there were no discernible mean differences among the respondents in perceived difficulties in each of the problem areas. There were city-suburban differences in perceived difficulties in the three areas: 1. Classroom Routines; 2. Methods of Teaching; and 3. Relations with Parents (119: 240).

Part of a study on teaching skills in elementary schools was published in 1966 under the title *Beginning Teacher Characteristics and Beginning Teacher Problems--Some Predictive Relationships* (125). Supervisors and principals listed the following problems experienced by beginning teachers:

1. Discipline or control problems, or problems handling students;
2. Organization, management or planning problems;
3. Problems in teaching reading or language arts;
4. Subject matter--arithmetic, social studies, or science;
5. Social-emotional problems, including difficulties with self-confidence and tension problems; and

6. Difficulties with expectancy--either over- or under-expecting--having difficulty adjusting to individual differences, or problems in getting correct level of instruction for grade.

The author of the study in which the above problems were identified concluded:

> . . . there is . . . much to suggest that with some refinement a set of measuring devices could be put together which would be of distinct help to supervisory personnel. Help in the sense that the potential problems of particular beginning teachers could be identified and proper steps taken through supervisory counseling and inservice work to resolve or reduce the severity of these problems to the benefit of the beginning teachers, their pupils, and to the employing school system (125: 8).

Washington State University carried out a study to see whether experimental treatments involving reduced work loads and intensive inservice instruction would affect the performance and attitudes of beginning teachers (55). It was hoped that the study data would show to what extent an internship program for career teachers would be justified. The experience in this study with the appraisal techniques used to evaluate beginning teachers' performances suggests that experienced teachers can be trained to use an observation checklist and arrive at a fair degree of agreement with other trained observers.

> It was the committee's opinion that teachers adapt the procedures of other teachers with whom they associate during these first months, and only to a small degree apply the procedures that they have studied in their college teacher education programs. The committee also felt that it was very possible that many teachers form their basic attitudes towards their profession in these first months of service. . . .
>
> Both researchers and practitioners strongly urge that the period of beginning teaching should be conceived of as the critical stage in the development and refinement of the technology of classroom teaching (55: 2-3).

The conclusions reached in the study included:

1. Beginning teachers appear to decline in quality of teaching performance and in attitudes toward teaching during the first two months of teaching.
2. Teachers in the study who had reduced loads were judged to show substantial improvement in teaching performances at the end of the first semester, while teachers with no reduction in load did not appear to improve. Changes in attitude did not appear to be related to loads.
3. The intensive inservice treatments may have contributed to an earlier improvement in teaching performance for those groups receiving this help than for the two groups which did not receive it.
4. The 25 percent reduction in load and twice-weekly inservice treatments appeared to contribute to at least a 25 percent improvement in teaching performance.

An experiment at Purdue University was concerned primarily with changing teacher morale and sought to discover whether this can be improved by definite and deliberate procedures, whether feedback to the teachers and principal about problems and tensions existing in the school system can be used to change morale, and whether such feedback is effective in stimulating individual and group efforts to alleviate tensions and overcome existing difficulties. The study extended over 2 years involving the principals and teachers in 76 high schools in Indiana and Oregon, with a total of 3,194 teachers.

> Apparently, the project was successful in making teachers aware of some of the problems existing in their school environment and in arousing considerable interest in doing something to resolve these difficulties. What was lacking was follow-through and tangible evidence that progress was being made . . . most of the faculties were not sufficiently motivated or just could not devote the time and energy needed to really bring about change (6: 51).

However, the study did introduce some new dimensions, since it was possible to break the total morale score into meaningful sub-scores, for example, with respect to sex and morale. Other research studies had shown women teachers to have significantly higher morale than men, and this study established that this difference could be attributed almost entirely to two of the components affecting morale--salary and status.

A 1967 study designed to investigate the success of graduates in elementary education at California State College over a 12-year period showed that major causes of unsuccessful teachers are lack of classroom organization and lack of pupil responses and responsibility (83).

In 1968 a pilot study was designed by the Center for Sociological Research at Western Michigan University to test the hypothesis that teachers' perceptions of the career expectations held for them by their best friend and by their spouse are associated with whether the teachers leave education for other occupations, change to another school system, or remain in their present school system (35). Questionnaires were completed by 150 of 286 first and second year male teachers in a midwestern urban school district in May 1967. Questions concerned career expectations held for them by their families and friends, their satisfaction with other school staff and with their teaching duties, their aspirations for social prestige, problems which they faced in the classroom, and the educational characteristics of their students and the cooperativeness of parents. Follow-up questionnaires were sent out to check the accuracy of the predictions made from their survey, and the study concluded that efforts to reduce turnover among teachers should focus upon activities which will elicit the support of their families and friends.

> It is interesting to note that no support was found for the view that teachers changed school systems or left education because of student discipline problems, negative attitudes toward students' parents, greater perceptions of student academic deficiencies or difference in socio-economic background. Neither were teacher indications of satisfaction with the job requirements of teaching,

> the general prestige and rewards accorded the career of teaching by the general community, or general satisfaction levels with others in role setting, different among teachers who left education, moved to new educational systems or stayed in their current educational systems. Not even the teachers' occupational aspirations and plans in terms of social prestige levels were significantly different for teachers who changed school systems, left education, or stayed in their current positions (35: 41).

The authors admit that "a chief weakness of this study lies in the fact that it does not show whether the spouse's or best friend's attitude concerning the teacher's career is determined by the teacher's attitude. It may be that the teacher's indication of the wife's or best friend's attitude merely reflects the teacher's attitude"(35: 42). In view of the other research results and opinions quoted in this paper, one may question whether this study contributes any worthwhile insights and whether the content of the questionnaire, together with the relatively small number of subjects involved, may have resulted in a failure to identify the real causes of teacher dissatisfaction.

A comprehensive study conducted by Gateway East Field Chapter of Phi Delta Kappa in Illinois used a questionnaire covering teacher background data and teachers' relationships with other teachers, students, administrators, non-certificated personnel, and the community (96). Questionnaires were sent to 1,382 first and second year teachers; replies came from 623. Some of the more interesting statistics which resulted were:

1. Three hundred forty-four rated their practice teaching experience as most helpful, 198 as helpful, and 62 considered it a waste of time.
2. Five hundred forty-six recommended increased emphasis on practice teaching, while only 54 wanted less.
3. One hundred seventy-eight had found method courses a great help, and 366 thought them of little value.
4. Nearly twice as many beginning teachers take their classroom problems to other teachers rather than to administrators.
5. Two thirds of the teachers found that mentally, emotionally, and socially immature students cause classroom problems, but only 134 found classroom discipline a serious problem.

Predominantly black Texas Southern University, administered achievement, self-concept, I.Q., and interest tests in local schools as part of an effort to improve its teacher preparation program and to motivate teachers to become more involved with inner-city pupils (15). Students in inner-city schools scored at or near the bottom in these tests. Their teachers explained this in terms of broken homes, large families, low family income, poorly educated parents, and lack of reading materials in the home, rather than through any failure on the part of the schools.

A California study published in 1968 attempted to discover if having the brightest and highest-achieving students take their first teaching experience with lower-class children would improve the quality of instruction. "There was little practical difference in numbers of teachers attracted permanently to poverty schools as a result of the kind of school encountered in a first assignment (79: 5).

> Placement of student teachers in poverty schools tends to make them view children and instruction differently. Most teachers value teacher control more highly after such an experience than those who complete their first teaching in affluent schools. As a consequence of teaching in inner-city schools, attitudes toward children become more negative; that is, more teachers change their attitudes in a negative direction and the degree of negativism held becomes greater. It is generally true that most U.C.L.A student teachers, regardless of social economic neighborhood in which they teach, tend to become more negative toward children while student teaching. Most of this change occurs during the first assignment. One should question what really happens in those particular schools (found in both affluent and poverty neighborhoods) where there is extreme change in the direction of negative attitudes and practices toward children. Is this change due to the instructional views held by the school's principal and training teachers(79: 6-7)?

This study suggests that simply to expose teachers early in their teaching experience to the inner-city situation is not an adequate way of influencing them to remain in these schools and to be effective teachers of disadvantaged children. It also raises a question as to how close to reality the teacher training programs can be if the majority of student teachers, regardless of the level of school to which they are sent, become more negative in their feelings about children. There is a suggestion here that the colleges have been failing to emphasize the centrality of the child in any school situation.

A limited study involving mathematics teachers in El Paso, Texas, was undertaken to investigate the origins of teachers' attitudes towards Mexican-American children. The school district included three areas--a neighborhood of predominantly low-income immigrant families where 100 percent of the pupils were Mexican American, a working class neighborhood which was second-generation American with 20 percent Anglo pupils and some Negroes, and a lower middle class neighborhood with 50 percent Mexican American and 50 percent of Asian or West European origin, and families who had lived in the United States for three generations or more. The findings suggested that the origins of teacher attitudes toward disadvantaged minority students lie to some extent in the type of professional training which they receive. "Those teachers who have attended summer institutes or special training programs related to the teaching of disadvantaged children evidence the greatest willingness to teach low ability students" (3: 9). A question here is whether the special training changed the attitudes of the teachers towards their students, or whether only those teachers who were prediposed to teach the disadvantaged took part in the special training.

The State Teachers College in Emporia, Kansas, undertook research to determine the extent to which teaching experience modified the behavior of a selected group of 50 first-year secondary school teachers and to examine the changes in teacher behavior from the student teaching period and the last 3 weeks of the first year as a beginning teacher (104). It was found that the experimental group became significantly more responsible, understanding, and kindly; taught with more originality; were judged to be more attractive, poised, confident, mature, and integrated; and demonstrated

more breadth in teaching than the control group. The 25 teachers in the experimental group had participated in a program of professional education which emphasized indirect influence through familiarization with interaction analysis, micro-teaching, observation, participation, and seminars. Some of the conclusions reached were:

1. Changes in pupil behavior as a result of the teachers' experience are not observable.
2. Teachers become more fair with students as a result of experience.
3. Teachers demonstrate more kindliness, responsiveness, and understanding toward students as a result of experience.
4. Experience modifies teacher behavior of poise and confidence.
5. The ability to stimulate students as a behavior does not seem to be significantly altered as a result of experience.
6. Teachers seem to reduce the percentage of time spent lecturing as a result of experience.
7. Experienced teachers tend to spend more time in directed practice than do inexperienced teachers.
8. The ratio of indirect verbal activity to direct verbal activity appears to increase with experience.
9. Extended direct influence appears to diminish as a result of experience.
10. Teachers sensitized in preservice professional programs to the use of indirect teacher influence, specifically to the acceptance of feeling, praise, and encouragement, and acceptance of students' ideas, seem to expand the use of these categories as compared to their use of direct categories of directions, criticisms, and corrective feedback.

Russell Heddendorf's research, already referred to in the previous section, also revealed that student teaching could produce negative developments. "A Westminster [College] female indicated, on the first wave, that 'many teachers go into teaching for the joy of it.' On the second wave, however, she . . . stated that for many 'teaching is an easy field and for a women you can always fall back on it'" (49: 146). He concludes that, "for some students, then, there was a strong tendency for student teaching to significantly alter their original plans for teaching. As has been noted on several occasions, the student no longer desired to teach or altered a commitment to public school education" (49: 148).

John Bouchard and Ronald Hull carried out a pilot study on teacher induction using interviews with teachers to discover what help they received and with principals to discover what formal and informal programs existed in the school for facilitating this process (8). The data obtained indicated that in the schools visited, few, if any, sequentially planned programs existed for the induction of beginning teachers.

> Beginning teachers tended to look with favor upon <u>any</u> course as long as it was perceived as contributing to their effectiveness in the teaching role. Ninety-five percent of the teachers interviewed admitted that they experienced considerable difficulty in performing their teaching roles, especially at the beginning of the school term. The preponderance of the response characterized the help received as a one day or one meeting orientation program conducted prior to the arrival of the students; these meetings were devoted

to dissemination of information concerning general procedures and policies. Fifty-nine percent . . . stated that they would have preferred their teaching role to be more explicitly defined by: 1) having been given more specific information on classroom procedures and management techniques; 2) having more problem-solving conferences with the principal or his designee; 3) having more observation and feedback on their classroom behavior; 4) having more consideration and help in obtaining materials and ideas for improvement of instructional techniques.

Feelings of satisfaction or disappointment seemed to be weighted primarily on the basis of teachers' perceptions of their ability to motivate students to learn. It seemed evident that the first-year teachers who were given groups of students who were potential dropouts tended to see themselves as being ineffective motivators for learning; thus, they tended to suffer more disappointments than did others.

Most of the respondents expressed gratitude for the help that was offered by supervisors or colleagues, but apparently assistance was not provided at the opportune time, thus, it was not as effective as it might have been (8: 11-12).

A study was made by the School of Education at the College of Missouri to contrast the attitudes of elementary and secondary school teachers in two St. Louis school districts, one of which was lower income urban and the other middle income suburban. The study involved 318 teachers and the results showed that the suburban teachers were more logically consistent in relating their theoretical ideas to their practical views about education. "In light of common state certification criteria for elementary and secondary teachers, it appears that the professional preparation of teachers is not a major factor in the relative attractiveness of urban and suburban teaching positions" (129: 1).

> It is . . . assumed that insecure social relationships prior to entering teaching militate against the gaining of security through social responses of pupils during teaching. As the needs of the inferior teachers for social acceptance are thus not met in the classroom, they tend to seek security in other ways. These may include teachers 1) displaying agression in the classroom by hostility towards people, in general, and towards children, in particular, 2) rigidly adhering to conventional, middle-class values, 3) largely emphasizing their position, authority, degrees, diplomas, and certificates, and 4) excessively stressing their knowledge of subject matter (129: 4).
>
> Notable differences on the basis of certain philosophical, logical, and psychological criterion measures were detected between the teachers of an urban and a suburban school district in the St. Louis metropolitan area (129: 8).
>
> It seems desirable that a closer examination be made of those factors liable to affect a prospective teacher's career. Increased attention should thus be particularly directed toward 1) the teacher's professional program, 2) the school district's philosophy, and 3) the personnel-selection processes of both teacher's professional school (college or university) and employing school district (129: 11).

One of the conclusions reached in this study seems questionable--"more of the type of young teachers currently aspiring for suburban teaching should, instead, be encouraged to teach in lower socio-economic urban schools"(129: 12). Unless a real change can be brought about in the attitude of these teachers, persuading them to work in inner-city schools could do more harm than good, as their initial desire for suburban teaching would tend to reinforce their dissatisfaction with their actual experience, with disastrous results in the classroom.

Although it concerns teacher education in Jamaica rather than in the United States, D. R. B. Grant's 1969 study is interesting as a comparison of perceived problems, which are in order of importance: insufficient material, planning, personal problems, discipline, instruction, evaluation, human relations, and subject matter. Although these differ considerably in emphasis from the studies which we have been considering, the author's recommendation is still relevant. _

> The weight of evidence is overwhelming in support of the fact that beginning teachers must be given more CONSIDERATION and HELP during their initial year of teaching. They must be assisted in order to prevent some of them from failing, especially as it is well-known that "there are not enough saints to fill all the teaching positions, so imperfect human beings must do the bulk of the instruction of youth. What counts is not your virtues or your vices, but what you do to the children with them"(45: 50-51).

The existing research literature on teacher behavior has been well characterized by Allen Ornstein when he says that "research on teacher behavior for the disadvantaged is almost nonexistent"(93: 1).

> Not only has teacher-behavior research failed to produce worthwhile results, but also the findings are either meaningless or else simply confirm "common sense." The results up to now are small in proportion to the outlay in time and effort; the field is becoming unmanageable; the investigators themselves do not know what to make of their findings (93: 2).

The difficulty lies in the nature of the subject being investigated.

> Analysis of teacher-behavior research may be beyond scienfific analysis, because the act of teaching, itself, may be unscientific. The process of teaching may not be a natural phenomenon that is suitable or controllable for scientific inquiry. Teacher behavior is difficult to assess, perhaps, because the act of teaching involves working with complex organisms. Teaching is novel, not absolute, in the sense that all teacher behavior and teaching situations are new, making itobscure for researchers. As previously mentioned, teaching is too complex for an abstract or scientific description. As previously mentioned, many teaching acts, especially nonverbal ones, go unnoticed or are difficult to make sense out of and evaluate. It is possible that teaching cannot be qualified into global or recognizable terms. As of now, a technical language has not yet been developed, one that is empirically based, to evaluate the actual teaching phenomena (125: 8).

27

In his consideration of the teacher dropout problem, Robert Bush says, "The need . . . is great for a longitudinal study, twenty or more years in duration, in which a defensible sample of those who begin upon careers of teaching can be followed long and intimately enough to determine what really happens to them"(11: 132). We could probably agree that however desirable such a study may be, something must be done in the meantime if the classroom crisis is not to reach manageable dimensions.

HELPFUL HINTS

The most immediate kind of remedy to be applied as a kind of band-aid to provide temporary relief to some tender spots might be considered as the helpful hint--which is what our first beginning teacher was asking for back on page 2. Only a few of these documents are considered to give some indication of their nature.

The National Association of Secondary School Principals has produced a series of three leaflets in connection with their Project on the Induction of Beginning Teachers (84,85,87). Addressed to the beginning teacher, the cooperating teacher, and the principal, each gives brief, basic advice on preparation during the summer preceding induction, orientation and organization at the beginning of the school year, and adjustments during the first and second semesters. A 25-minute sound filmstrip, *Thank God It's Friday*, which forms part of this series, follows a beginning teacher through her experiences during the first year of teaching and illustrates many of the common mistakes and misconceptions.

Many school districts provide their own versions of these books, with greater or lesser success, and they serve a useful purpose in indicating the particular requirements and customs of the school, and so help to smooth the difficult first days in a new environment.

A Handbook for Teaching in Ghetto Schools is intended to help new and prospective elementary teachers. More positive and practical in its approach than *Death at an Early Age* and *Up the Down Staircase*, it gives examples of how teachers can develop meaningful curriculum content through a knowledge and understanding of the children's experiences, feelings, needs, strengths, and weaknesses. It shows how teachers can begin to understand the school and ghetto community and to realize that there are many good as well as bad aspects of life there. The book suggests materials to use in teaching, describes some of the typical causes of the problems experienced by new teachers, and seeks to provide insights which will help in their solution. Although the book deals with a Harlem school, it can help teachers of either urban or rural disadvantaged children.

> The new teacher . . . needs to recognize that as part of a ghetto elementary school faculty he may be characterized as an inferior teacher and one who lacks concern for the children. The challenge is to develop the inner strength that will permit him to take criticism, much of which may be unwarranted. It is not to withdraw in the face of these attacks, but to understand their inception. It is to be aware that in the Negro's struggle to undo past injustice the teacher's role is an ambivalent one, for he represents a different

race or a different class, or both. The challenge is to move forward without expecting superhuman responses from himself or from members of the community.

For the new teacher to accept the total challenge is to accept a deep degree of commitment. It is to recognize the need for a growing personal perception. It is to immerse himself in what may be a unique situation, to try to understand the forces working within that situation, and to learn ways of reaching his pupils so that he may truly realize his potential to effect change (123: 145-46).

PRACTICAL PROGRAMS

This section gives details of 24 programs which have been implemented. Some of them, although successful, have had to be discontinued for lack of funds, some have developed gradually over a number of years, while others are still in the experimental stage. The amount of information varies from program to program, but every effort has been made to include sufficient factual detail to enable the reader to make at least a preliminary evaluation of the scope, objectives, and methodology. It would be unfair to attempt any rating or value judgment without the research needed to provide comparable data for each. An additional 24 programs for which only limited material was available are also briefly described.

Wilmette Illinois Public Schools: Program for Beginning Teachers

This program, serving nine elementary public schools and two elementary non-public schools, focuses on the primary concerns of the individual teachers as they relate to each school and is individualized for each teacher, in cooperation with him. It is intended to provide an inservice program throughout the teacher's pre-tenure period. An average of two half-days a month released time, as well as Saturday mornings, are required of participants. Each beginning teacher is teamed with an experienced teacher for planning, observation, and help in self-evaluating. Six handbooks for the program were prepared by the teachers in cooperation with members of the preventive psychiatry research staff at the University of Iowa.

The program's objectives for beginning teachers are:

1. To identify the needs and interest of pupils;
2. To interact with fellow teachers concerning areas of common interest;
3. To request concrete assistance from consultants and helping teachers on an as-needed basis in the areas of methodology, materials, content, and so forth;
4. To use more creative techniques and methods in areas in which they have exhibited strengths;
5. To use new skills and techniques gained through visitation and observation of highly qualified teachers in the classroom;
6. To have a higher degree of commitment to the teaching profession by counseling beginning teachers on a graduate program which is related to their needs and interests;
7. To know the services and facilities available in the schools, the community, and the geographic area at large;

8. To evaluate their strengths and weaknesses as teachers perceptively; and
9. To know about exemplary programs and projects in and around Chicago.

Preliminary conclusions concerning the program show that beginning teachers have maintained a positive attitude toward it, the excitement of participating teachers has caused experienced staff to feel a need for similar programs, the administrative staff has observed an attitude of genuine concern for self-improvement, and new teachers are effectively functioning in the classroom, using techniques learned through the program.

> Statistics show that five out of six teachers drop out of teaching within their first five years. A four year study of 2,000 teachers employed by Oregon school districts reveals that seven out of ten teachers will not be teaching in the same district five years later. There are many reasons given for this turnover. Although some of the reasons are not related to the teachers' success and happiness in the classroom, some are directly related to these issues (133: 3).
>
> As teachers enter the profession, they need guidance in materials, content and methodology, orientation to the profession and the community, opportunities to express their individual abilities, support to try new approaches, assistance within and outside their local district, opportunities for extended consultations with specialists, and a variety of other similar services. Traditionally, teachers have been given a schedule of class, textbooks, and space, and have been placed on their own. This procedure has created confusion and anxiety on the part of teachers. Unfortunately, this confusion and anxiety has been translated into the classroom and has had a detrimental effect on children in many cases. Consequently, many teachers, after a few months or years of sincere effort, leave the profession in pursuit of a position which will provide more support or "security." In other words, a beginning teacher finds himself beset with a new way of life over night, a way of life on which the growth and development of many children depend, a way of life in which there are few pat answers. This way of life is a far cry from the protected college classrooms and the theory expounded therein (133: 4).

Hunter College, City University of New York

One Hunter College program involved four schools in Harlem and one in the East Bronx and was based on continuous self-evaluation and self-criticism. The program was started in the early 1960's and applied only to special service junior high schools in culturally depressed areas. During the first semester six volunteers participated; by the fifth semester there were 19.

All student teachers spent the entire morning in a school for one full semester. The first 3 weeks of student teaching involved observation, orientation, and adjustments; the next 2 weeks induction into actual classroom teaching situations; the final 10-11 weeks the students assumed control of and responsibility for the class with daily observations and critiques.

The five special characteristics of the program were:

1. The student was a fully responsible teacher, and his mistakes were more easily corrected than if he had been a beginning teacher.
2. There was wide contact with community agencies, institutions, and leaders.
3. Weekly conferences were held between school and college personnel and the student teachers.
4. The students spent approximately three or four hours working in various school offices.
5. There was a high level of cooperation between school and college (78).

> A program at Hunter College stresses that prospective inner-city teachers be specifically prepared in schools where they will eventually teach. It is a voluntary program designed to help the teachers understand dynamics of cultural difference and what implications it holds for the learning process. A student teacher in this program spends a greater number of actual hours teaching than what normally occurs in traditional programs, develops wide contacts with community agencies, and is included in weekly conferences held among administrative and course personnel in the school. The program provides the prospective teacher with direct contact with educational and community workers and leaders. It also provides training in the use of newly developed instructional materials (78: 7).

Hunter College: Project TRUE

This project was "charged with the task of suggesting curriculum changes aimed at better training teachers for work with the disadvantaged child"(57: 23). It involved several activities. In the summer of 1963, 14 beginning elementary school teachers in special service schools, who were also graduates of the College Teacher Education program, were randomly selected to provide weekly tape recordings of their experiences. There were four purposes for this study:

> To provide us with a knowledge in depth of the acculturation process into the urban school system, and beginning teachers perceptions of child behavior, management of behavioral problems, instructional success and failure, and interaction patterns with teachers, administrators, specialists, parents and others.
>
> To increase our general knowledge of the slum school as a human organization.
>
> To provide us with a way of assessing the classroom practices of our own graduates in the teacher education program.
>
> To provide us with first hand material from beginning teachers which could be developed and used in courses at Hunter and enable us to think through more realistically what some of the needed changes in our program may be (57: 3-4).

Urban School Days, a book of selected observations of urban classrooms prepared from these tapes, seeks to put the schools in realistic perspective and to reduce the amount of culture shock experienced by beginning teachers.

The three elementary schools considered were all in lower income areas and most of the pupils were either American Negroes or Americans of Latin American background. Intended primarily for use in courses concerned with classroom management, the book attempts to develop the student's ability to look at the school as an organization reflecting cultural patterns of behavior.

> We can only reassure you that all your students, no matter how bizarre and shocking they may seem to you at first, are human beings worthy of respect. No matter how small and immature, they are nonetheless rational beings with real interests, in a political sense, of their own. They are capable of responding to decent treatment in their own best interest if such treatment is presented in a way that they can understand (80: 12).
>
> These teachers are woefully ignorant of their pupils' background, which they assume to be empty. Thus they can make no real attempt to make schooling intelligible to these children. We can only conclude that these teachers' own education has failed them. They have not been taught to teach themselves. They have not the flexibility to learn how to cope with a situation that demands utmost creativity (80: 259).
>
> We have also shown you that pupils, even of tender years, are yet human beings with an ideal sphere of dignity around their persons. Though they are not yet adults, nor yet of your social class, they are still owed deference and courtesies and a right to their private selves. The teacher likewise must establish a demeanour showing him or herself sure to give deference and worthy of receiving it (80: 265).
>
> We suspect many young people enter urban teaching with the ideal of the social worker in their minds. The social worker, it seems to them, is the person who is really doing good in urban surroundings. But the school provides an easier, less rough, way of doing the same good work. This ideal is commendable for its compassion; but we think the social worker an inappropriate model for urban teachers. The urban teacher is not there to "cure." She or he is there to impart knowledge and separate children from the family world and prepare them for an independent life in modern society (80: 267).

Another book based on these weekly recordings is *The First Semester: Beginning Teachers in Urban Schools*. Each incident described is followed by a series of questions to stimulate student discussion and by comments on the ways in which the beginning teachers handled the situation.

> Most of the classes discussed are composed of children who are at least two years below level in reading ability. Many of the classes include a few children who are severely emotionally disturbed. Although all schools are supposedly integrated, because of de facto segregation in housing the majority of the children are Negro or Puerto Rican, and of low economic level (116: 1).

Teachers Talk, published in 1969 and previously mentioned, also drew upon Project TRUE material for its content (41).

By September 1964 the Project had produced tangible results. Curriculum materials completed were:

1. *Urban Education*, an annotated bibliography;
2. *Education and the Metropolis*, selected readings on the social forces affecting the education of children in underprivileged urban environments;
3. *Urban School Days;*
4. *Schools of the Streets*, a sociological analysis of selected aspects of the slum school;
5. Sixty charts, graphs, and tables of inner-city demographic data;
6. Fifteen videotapes of lessons given by urban teachers; and
7. Three films, two videotapes and nineteen audio tapes on a variety of urban school topics.

Training activities completed were:

1. Four student conferences on training in a special service school;
2. Social and psychological foundations courses in which students intensively observed in special service schools;
3. An intensive 6-week summer institute for elementary teachers; and
4. Faculty and school personnel conference.

Temple University, Philadelphia: Intern Teaching Program

This program was established in 1954 with a Ford Foundation grant. A study made of three groups of teachers from 1954 to 1959 to determine how these interns compared with traditionally trained teachers found that they were at least as competent. In 1957 Temple University took on the responsibility for funding and directing the program, which had developed and been refined, increased in size, and had added special courses.

Teaching interns in the program went through a 2- or 3-year training cycle which began with a full-time, 6-week summer session of orientation to teaching. The interns accepted a full-time, full-salary teaching position in a secondary school and during the first year also enrolled in the university for supervision and a weekly seminar. During the second and third years of teaching they enrolled in additional graduate courses --four required courses on teaching of reading, nature of learning, special subject methods, and the school's role in society, plus electives in an academic field or in professional education.

This was designed as a self-supporting program to develop liberal arts and science graduates as secondary school teachers. The intern demonstrated skills, attitudes, and professional competencies necessary for effective teaching and on completion, earned a provisional teaching certificate and a master's degree. The schools involved ranged from inner-city to those in well-endowed suburbs and small rural communities. More than eight out of ten graduates remained in teaching or closely related activities, and seven out of ten were male. "The best preparation for teaching is guided experience. This guidance is best attained through a close one-to-one relationship between intern teacher and experienced supervisor in the teacher's own classroom"(122: 1). 33

Baltimore City Public Schools: Project MISSION

This program, established by Coppin, Morgan, and Towson state colleges in cooperation with the Baltimore Public School system and with the support of the Ford Foundation, was designed to improve the preparation of potential urban teachers by giving them actual teaching experience in slum schools along with course work in methods and materials, foundations of education, and communication skills. The proposal was that, for its three years' duration, 30 teacher interns would work with critic teachers in Baltimore elementary and junior high schools. The interns, after a 1-month period of observing the critic teacher, would assume sole responsibility for classroom instruction. Their course work would consist of: (a) sociological and psychological foundations, field and laboratory experiences, and methods and materials in the first semester and psychological foundations, psychological field experiences, and methods and materials in the second. At the end of the year the intern would be invited to become a probationary teacher in the Baltimore City Public Schools, assigned to an inner-city school. During his first year he would be continuously evaluated and given special assistance whenever necessary.

The proposal sets out two major objectives:

1) The project is designed to prepare teachers in training, as well as those in service, for work with disadvantaged children, to identify and assist the talented among them, to heighten their aspirations, and to develop in them the skills necessary for full and mature citizenship. The project also seeks to increase parental understandings of the values of education and to increase their own sense of responsibility for the education and the full development of their children. Moreover, it aims at mobilizing community resources to help accomplish these goals.
2) This project has been devised for the purpose of creating a meaningful continuing communications link between the public school system and these colleges. It has also been devised to determine the techniques that can be developed for lending social emphasis to the problems of urban teaching and the special demands of teaching school in disadvantaged areas. Finally, it has searched for incentives which might be utilized to encourage young people to prepare themselves for urban teaching assignments (4: i-ii).

If the proper study of mankind is man, then the proper study of the inner-city child is human relations. Without a profound, practical knowledge of human relations, teachers can do little to fulfill the dreams of these children. To ensure that the glimmers of hope in Project Mission children will be kept alive, teachers require a blend of theory and practice in human relations (4: 6).

Although the proposals give details of the ghetto life which are familiar in their stress on its negative aspects, a serious effort is also made to show how, in many ways, the lives of these children include many virtues and positive qualities.

Many of the children who are culturally disadvantaged live in "homes" in which a parent or parents lack time, knowledge, and understanding to provide their children with the learning experiences they need.

> Too many of these children come from "homes" which have no father, step-father, or male guardian and are held together only by a mother's love. Many parents must work exceptionally long hours to keep their family intact; many are too physically and emotionally ill to carry out their parental responsibilities; and some parents simply do not care. In such cultural environments, the children become increasingly academically handicapped (4: 16).
>
> The negative side of life in these areas is easy to document. . . . But teacher-trainees for inner-city schools in these areas should not ignore the strengths of families living in slum areas. Family life is the bulwark of security and protection for [these] children. In families living in slum areas there are many children and many parent substitutes. Such families seldom consist of a mother and child living alone. The home is a crowded, busy place. It might include aunts and uncles, grandfathers and grandmothers, all [of whom] could exert a substitute parent role. Because intense parent-child relationships rarely develop--there are too many children--sibling rivalry is not great. These children almost never get the attention needed for intense parent-child relationships to develop and flourish. Therefore, the appearance of a new baby generates little fear. These children depend more upon each other for attention and affection than upon their parents. Yet it would be a mistake to assume that the inner-city child receives no adult love. Interestingly the relationship between love and discipline is viewed differently in underprivileged families than in privileged families. In underprivileged households, the problem of discipline looms great. But discipline here is not used as an instrument for the withholding of love. Instead, children are controlled through punishment. If a child disobeys he is punished quickly--a sharp belt. The child knows what he was punished for. The incident is over and quickly forgotten. Children in underprivileged households need respect more than they need love. To be successful, the inner-city school teacher must develop the knack of accepting and respecting these children despite their initial surface hostility and defiance (4: 23-24).

An understanding of the home background will enable the teacher to avoid a sentimental approach and provide the children with a firm but supportive attitude.

> These children need a teacher who is emotionally stable and on whom they can depend. Vacillatory behavior, different punishments for the same infractions are not traits that endear teachers to these children. The inner-city school teacher must expect a difficult transition period. To get rattled or disillusioned, to be afraid or cynical, to be too soft or too tough is to court failure. The inner-city school teacher must be flexible and adaptable. She must be able to disagree with her students but not feel ill at ease with them when she does. While respecting certain beliefs and sentiments, she must be prepared to oppose them openly. Teachers who talk too much are usually not effective for these pupils. Brought up in a world in which physical expression is the rule, too much talk bewilders them. They simply are not prepared to listen to forty or fifty minutes of talk at a sitting (4: 26-27).

Quality education is never achieved without quality teachers (4: 29).

Coppin State College, Baltimore, Maryland

An undergraduate program running from January 1, 1965 to December 31, 1966 and designed to prepare volunteer students to teach in inner-city elementary schools was initiated by this small, predominantly black college. The 19 volunteers were mostly lower middle class, 15 were from Baltimore and 18 were Negro. The program focused on problems in educating the culturally different in large urban areas.

Prospective teachers were sought from the ethnic and cultural groups to be served. Only volunteers were used, and people-oriented students were preferred. The course included "The Sociology of the City," "Minority People," and "Education of the Culturally Different." Student teaching was in three inner-city Baltimore schools, one black, one with many Appalachian whites, and one with a number of Italian-American and Polish-American children. The program was generally felt to be a success and 4 months of follow-up observations showed that the students were functioning effectively as beginning teachers in their own classrooms.

To produce useful data the experiment should have been continued for at least 3 to 5 years, but funds were not available after December 1966. Some tentative conclusions which were reached included:

1. Volunteers do better than than draftees in these schools.
2. Understanding of urban life and living conditions is helpful to inner-city teachers.
3. The defective self-concept of an inner-city teacher or child can be improved.
4. "Directed student teaching" under the guidance of properly oriented supervisors is helpful to preservice teachers.
5. Tools of remediation, especially in reading, make a difference.
6. It is possible, though difficult, to engage the interest and active support of inner-city leaders in a college sponsored program of teacher education and cultural progress (99).

State University of New York, Oswego: Team Supervision of Beginning Teachers

"This program of assistance for the beginning teacher is an outgrowth and further refinement of a three-year (1964-1966) program conducted in cooperation with the Schenectady Public Schools, designed to improve student teaching"(98: 2). It is an experimental program of mutual assistance in which four or five beginning teachers are teamed with an experienced teacher to improve instruction and the teaching competencies of team members. The program differs from traditional supervisory methods in that it is divorced from the school's administrative chain of command and it provides more than one model for the beginning teacher.

Under the guidance of the experienced teacher (a faculty member who attended a 6-week summer institute on team supervision), the team proceeds through a four-step clinical analysis process known as cycling: (a) one member is selected to teach a lesson and he prepares objectives which are

studied by the rest of the team in a pre-observation planning session, during which they decide what data to collect, how, and by whom; (b) the lesson is taught and raw data is collected by team members; (c) the team meets without the teacher to analyze and organize the data and to plan the strategy for presentation of feedback; (d) feedback is presented to the teacher who interacts with other members in a self-analytic manner. The process is repeated with each of the team members.

> The effort is made to eliminate behavior that would make the team members evaluators of what the teacher did. Rather, the role of the team is to provide a multi-lensed camera through which, as objectively as possible, the teacher can see a reflection of himself (98: 3-4).
>
> Current statistics from our State Education Department predict that one out of every two beginning teachers in our state will not be in the profession after their first year of teaching. Team supervision is designed to remedy the teacher dropout problem by providing an improved quality of assistance to the beginning teacher, through the mechanism of the team. It is also designed to improve the quality of experiences available to the beginning teacher, enabling him to reach a stage of greater classroom effectiveness at an eariler date than might normally be expected. It is projected that such assistance may be the significant difference between retaining a beginning teacher in the profession or having him join the ranks of the teacher dropout (98: 1).
>
> The program is experimental. It is in the process of evaluation. Teachers who have been involved in the program to date, however, have been enthusiastic about what it has done for them in terms of new insights, self-improvement, and increased job satisfaction. Because of the special emotional overtones and its quasi-therapeutic nature, it has received strong praise from teams who have had even a moderate degree of success. It is difficult to verbalize what it is that happens to people who work in a new, complex, social relationship that just has not been a part of their previous experience. The average teacher, traditionally isolated through most of the day in his island classroom, enters a new world of experience through team supervision. We have seen what team supervision has meant to the vast majority of its participants, and their positive expressions are the basis for further experimentation with the program and our prognosis for its success (98: 5).

San Francisco, California: STEP (Sausalito Teacher Education Project)

The program was started in 1966 and funded by the California State Department of Education, Office of Compensatory Education. It was a cooperative effort of San Francisco State College and the Sausalito School District, which was selected because it had desegregated its schools in 1965. The goal of the program was to develop ways to prepare teacher candidates to be more effective with students in desegregated classrooms. It was later expanded to include the San Francisco Unified School District and provided a combination of college instruction and school classroom experience.

The various aspects of the program included:

1. Direct experience in the classroom, from September through summer school, as teacher assistants, student teachers, and teacher interns;
2. Instruction and curriculum concurrent with and related to classroom experience, through seminars, small group conferences, and individualized instruction;
3. Weekly counseling sessions of six to eight students;
4. Inservice education for classroom teachers to parallel and complement the preservice program;
5. Evaluation and research;
6. Communications and community relations program, including adult education programs for parents;
7. A "New Careers" program to help deprived pupils or students to become teachers;
8. Innovative use of media in teacher education; and
9. Professional and curriculum materials center for use by students and teachers.

From its inception in February 1966, the STEP program has moved toward a heavier emphasis in all course work to direct experience; more student time in the school district, a more intensive in-service program, greater community involvement, and the development of a STEP Teacher Education Center in two school districts (105:A2).

It has become apparent to STEP faculty that most of its Caucasian students--even though they expressed a strong desire to work with socio-economically deprived children and even though many had some previous experience in Vista, Peace Corps, tutoring programs, etc. --still found it difficult to understand and relate to these children effectively in the classroom. Therefore, STEP made the assumption that if students from this socio-economic deprived background could be recruited into the teacher education field, given special teacher preparation for the desegregated classroom, and encouraged to go into desegregated classrooms as teachers; then the probability for success would be much higher (105:E2).

A partical listing of the program objectives reads as follows:

1. To provide a teacher education program which will prepare candidates who place a high value on the teaching of educationally deprived children;
2. To provide a teacher education program that will develop the professional skills and understandings needed in order to work with children of different cultural and socio-economic backgrounds; and
3. To provide a teacher education program that will lead teachers to pursue careers in communities with diversified populations (105:A3).

A final report on the 1969 STEP-TTT Program was received too late for detailed consideration in this paper. It is concerned with the program by San Francisco State College and the San Francisco Unified School Districts which also included the education of Trainers of Teacher Trainers (7).

Cooperative Urban Teacher Education Program (CUTE)

This program, involving 23 Midwest liberal arts colleges, with four public and two parochial school systems in Oklahoma City, Wichita, and Kansas City, was organized in 1966 to develop and implement practical plans for cooperation in the preparation of teachers for inner-city schools. The NDEA Institute for Advanced Study in Teaching Disadvantaged Youth had been "created to improve programs for personnel who engaged in or were preparing to engage in the teaching of disadvantaged youth"(19: 1).

> Out of subsequent meetings came a name for the group--the Cooperative Urban Teacher Education Program (CUTE)--and an organizational structure (19: 2).

A five-stage plan provided both a structure and a set of guidelines. Committees composed of representatives from each participating institution were formed to develop and conduct the program in each city and to resolve issues of financial responsibility, program content, faculty selection, and academic policy.

> Educators have for some time agreed upon the necessity for cooperative school-college relationships in the preparation of teachers; however, they have been slow to develop and implement practical plans for such cooperation (19: 5).

It was believed that "a combination of institutions working together in an urban setting could provide prospective teachers a much more comprehensive program than is presently offered at most colleges"(17: 5). Also, "it was assumed that a prospective teacher would be better prepared if he (a) understood both his own and his pupils' attitudes, insecurities, anxieties and prejudices; (b) understood both his own and his pupils' environment and culture; (c) was knowledgeable of and competent in reflective teaching methods for inner-city learners" (17: 12).

> The students that have been in the program seem to want to stay in it, and they seem to have a kind of "missionary zeal" to convert the other people. They are back on campus talking to other students, telling them about what's going on in the inner city. Maybe a better general understanding of what's happening in the inner city will come out of this. At least that's what I'm hoping.
>
> Student participants will take assignments in inner city schools. Many of them will remain in our system. They are better able to assume classroom responsibilities because of the program (19: 33).

The students spend 16 weeks in Kansas City where the field experiences include orientation to urban educational problems by public school personnel; visits to schools and homes in urban deprived communities; conferences with personnel from public and private agencies concerned with the problems of a culturally disadvantaged, deprived society; contacts with inner-city children in and out of school; seminars to provide a basis for solutions to problems; and an extended period of full-day student teaching in an inner-city school.

The program became operational in the fall of 1967 with 22 students. Staff included a mental health specialist, a sociologist, and teacher educators. As a result of the program, classroom observation and participation have been increased during the first 8 weeks, advancing from tutoring to full-time teaching and providing increased contact with the pupils; innercity pupils are used in video-taped microteaching sessions; and field trips have been reduced to provide more concentrated experiences.

A curriculum guide was developed as part of the program and has been used with prospective elementary and secondary teachers for more than 2 years. It presents especially the content for teacher education, sociology, and mental health, while the introduction sketches the rationale and historical development of the guidelines and shows how the course content is interrelated.

> A few students have chosen the program for pursuing a liberating struggle which has become an intensely personalized and nonverbal one with whom they have then suitable teachers. This intense interest in establishing and preserving the "education establishment" apparently enables their desire to teach more skillfully those very children they profess to care about (18: 19).

Some of the students' own comments are worth noting:

> If I am to effectively communicate with and relate to my students, I must recognize what they are. I must not recognize them as individuals like me, but as individuals unlike me, with just as much importance and interest worth. I cannot wait to make them be like me or people I know. I must wait to develop what they are to their greatest potential. I will never know them because I can never be like them. I can only hope to learn enough about them to be able to understand them (17: 20).
>
> I sometimes wonder how an educator will find ourselves functioning in this ever-changing society. Never before have I looked at education in the sense of such extreme social responsibilities and implications. The thing that often bothers me is the large number of "educators" who never really do take it seriously (17: 58).
>
> Oh, how I wish every teacher could go through this (17: 19)!

Meeting Students: Teacher Innovative Training Program

The Innovative Training Program was initiated at Meeting Students High School during the 1967-68 school year because educators realized that while most teachers are quite adequate in their subject knowledge and skills, there is a growing threat to students and teachers from the impersonalization and isolation in many crowded classrooms today.

The main objectives of the program were: (a) to expose teachers to alternatives which would result in their being willing to look at their own behavior and its effects on the youngsters in and out of the behavior of the group; (b) to develop in the teachers an increased desire to examine such effects so as to understand; and (c) to provide the teachers in assessing their own behavior in the classroom setting. Most of the activities were video-taped. This gave the participants the opportunity to see at first hand

the value of videotaping in analyzing their classroom activities. Monthly all-day seminar sessions were held involving three types of seminar groups: (a) beginning teachers; (b) second-year teachers who had been members of a seminar group the previous year and (c) "veteran" teachers. Membership of each group represented all disciplines and remained the same throughout the year.

The program is being expanded to involve five of the six high schools in the school district. "This program was unique in that it was not a 'packaged program' to be instituted in a particular school for district" (60: 26).

> The program was designed to bridge the "reality gap" for the beginning teachers, the "communication gap" for experienced and inexperienced teachers, and the "feeling gap" that exists for many teachers. It was anticipated that such a program would aid the beginning teachers as he finds his way through the "classroom teaching wilderness" after leaving the protected, controlled, secure environment of student teaching and venturing out on his own (60: 12).

State University College at Buffalo, New York: FORCEP

FORCEP (School Four City Education Project) was developed through the cooperative efforts of the Buffalo School System, the State University College at Buffalo, and the faculty and administration at School 8 (a multi-racial inner-city elementary school used in the program). No funds were available. Thus, the program was developed within the existing teacher education sequence and made usable in other schools without external funding.

It was initiated as a pilot project in 1967 with junior year participation and student teaching segments. A graduate course, "Seminar in Teaching the Disadvantaged Child," was established and teachers at School 8 were encouraged to enroll. In 1968 the junior participation group was enlarged and a 2-day inservice workshop for college students and school faculty was held in the school. A new course, "The Nature and Needs of the Disadvantaged Child," was offered, also a pre-nature program for teachers in the inner city. A federal grant was made for four prospective teacher fellowships, and these students did part of their field work in the School 8 community. In 1969 the program was again expanded and incorporated freshman and sophomore education courses. A program for neighborhood high school students and dropouts was begun. College professors were involved in special projects working with children. Plans for the future include the involvement of other urban schools and a strong research component.

> FORCEP is a people oriented program. Particular emphasis is focused upon understanding the child--the effect of his environment, the influence of his family, the development of self. Study of the community, discussion with parents, and especially involvement with children in informal and formal situations provide opportunities for participants to examine attitudes and develop a commitment to self and to the urban child. Participants include high school students, dropouts, undergraduates, beginning and experienced teachers, graduate students and college professors (60: 8).

Hartford, Connecticut: HICUT '68

This program laid stress on community involvement and included parents, community leaders, city leaders, city agency employees, and businessmen. Operated by the Hartford Public Schools and the University of Hartford, the program centered around a 7-week summer session, with 6-hour days, 5 days a week. It included 13 resource teachers, 4 special service personnel, 59 experienced teachers, 36 teachers new to the system, 8 aides who were university graduates. The staff included two media specialists, a nurse's aide, librarian, university resource team, co-directors representing the school system and the university, and a number of nationally prominent urban consultants.

For 5 of the 7 weeks participants were involved with children in a daily instructional practicum, with activities including teaching, observation, team planning, media preparation, demonstration lessons, conferences, seminars, and evaluations. Informal afternoon sessions employed small group discussions, large group seminars, team planning, and devising innovative teaching strategies for experimentation within the classroom (130).

Yeshiva University, New York: Project Beacon Training Program

The program was originally funded by an institutional assistance grant, and 12 fellowships were awarded for 1968-69 and 1969-70. The objectives of the program were: (a) understanding forces which shape human development and learning, with particular reference to disadvantaged children; (b) understanding community organization and processes, especially as they relate to the school; (c) understanding modern principles of curriculum development and teaching methods, with particular reference to disadvantaged children; (d) skill in classroom instruction and management; (e) empathy with disadvantaged people; (f) readiness and ability to use research techniques in instructional problems; and (g) commitment to the education of disadvantaged children. "A more general purpose of the Project Beacon Training Program is to discover, through experimentation and demonstration, fruitful approaches to the preparation of effective beginning teachers of socially disadvantaged children in inner-city elementary schools" (137: 2).

The Project Beacon Training Program is an interdisciplinary program of teacher education which encompasses (1) three position centered seminars on campus, running concurrently--in the areas of (1) Psychology of Human Development and Learning, (2) Social Organization and Process, and (3) Curriculum and Instruction; (2) systematic sensitivity training (of the T-group type); and (3) a parallel series of four types of field experience--(1) guided observation in public elementary schools serving urban slum neighborhoods in New York City, (2) tutoring in selected schools outside the New York City system, (3) direct study of and participation in the instructional, organizational and family life of inner slum neighborhoods in which Negroes and Puerto Ricans predominate, and (4) solidly student teaching in public elementary schools serving the same neighborhoods (137: 2-3).

> It is planned to attach to the staff as part-time consultant a Puerto Rican who is thoroughly familiar with the special problems of Puerto Rican children in the public schools, with the history and culture of the Puerto Rican people, and with organizational and institutional life in the Puerto Rican community of New York City . . . the Project Beacon Training Program includes persons who are fully competent to guide theoretical study and field work relating to Negro life and culture (137: 11).

New York City: Supportive Training for Inexperienced and New Teachers (STINT)

In this program, 152 master teachers were assigned as teacher-trainers to schools with a history of high teacher turnover. The program was expanded in February 1969 to include 100 additional teacher-trainers. They provided demonstration lessons, assisted in cooperative planning, advised in implementing the curriculum, guided disciplinary procedures, and helped to establish classroom routines. This was the first large-scale effort to provide such help in the school system. It was planned to continue the program in 1969-70. Between 3,000 and 4,000 new teachers received assistance, and approximately 90,000 children were reached directly by the program.

Based on an analysis of the data, the program can be judged successful. Positive evaluations were obtained from district coordinators, principals, teacher-trainers, and trainees. The professional educators who visited the classes taught by the trainees were impressed by their level of professional functioning and consistently rated them higher than beginning teachers graduated from intensive and regular programs of teacher preparation.

> The program was developed in an attempt to meet the orientation and training needs of new and inexperienced teachers assigned to the public elementary schools of the city. . . . Each teacher-trainer was to work with a maximum of nine new teachers in his school, providing demonstration lessons, assisting cooperative planning, advising on implementing curriculum, guiding in disciplinary procedures, and helping to establish classroom routine. The primary objective of these activities was to provide supportive services to new and inexperienced teachers in curriculum, methodology, class control, and planning (39: 1).

The strengths of the program most frequently mentioned (by teacher trainers) were the ability of the trainee to ask for help from a peer (85 percent), the provision for practical assistance in such areas as curriculum, methodology, discipline, motivation and methods (88 percent), and the improved morale of the trainees (85 percent).

The most pronounced weaknesses of the program, according to the teacher trainers, were the lack of adequate facilities and space (58 percent), the overload of work for the trainee (25 percent), role conflict with the assistant principal (25 percent), and the lack of coordination of free time of the teacher trainees (58 percent).

Finally, teacher trainers were asked to rate the general effectiveness of the STINT program on a six-point scale, ranging from excellent to unsatisfactory. Responses fell generally into the "excellent" (30 percent), "very good" (39 percent), and "good" (27 percent) categories (39: 66-67).

Principals felt that the trainees derived considerable benefit from the program in many areas important to teaching success. Approximately two-thirds of the 154 principals responding to this question reported that the STINT trainees were "more sensitive and aware" of the emotional and learning needs of the children than were other beginning teachers. In all but one instance this greater competence was attributed to the STINT program. Sixty-eight percent of the 161 principals responding felt that the STINT trainees had "much better" or "somewhat better" morale than other beginning teachers. The remaining principals felt morale was the same for the two groups. When compared to the typical beginning teacher in overall teaching ability, the mean percentage of ratings of the STINT trainees were similarly distributed (39: 71).

South Texas: New Teacher Orientation Project

Funding began on December 6, 1968 although the project actually started in August 1968. The 1968-69 phase involved 357 new teachers in small group discussion-training sessions throughout the school year with a college professor, an experienced host teacher, and a building principal in each group. Topics were problems experienced by new teachers, solutions to problems, new ideas and approaches relating to the kinds of students being taught, and job satisfactions being experienced.

The 1969 summer phase included 29 teachers in a student teaching program under the auspices of the Pan American College School of Education with special permission from the Texas Education Agency.

In 1969-70 the long-term phase involved the 29 summer scholars in monthly discussion-training meetings. The group developed a *Handbook for New Teachers, New Teacher Orientation for Rio Grande Border Pupils* to strengthen the skills, understanding, and professional commitment to work with Mexican-American pupils.

In a "candid expression of Project accomplishment," the document states that:

1. The program awakened a wide range of Valley administrators to the problem of new teachers leaving the Valley after only one or two years of teaching experience there and to the fact that something can be done about it. One can't prevent teachers leaving for higher salaries or for marriage, or to be nearer home, but one can ameliorate dissatisfaction over not understanding students or parents and adjusting to a different culture. One can improve communications.
2. It convinced many new teachers that monthly cover, that assistance and help are available.
3. It produced a *Handbook for New Teachers* that should be helpful to beginning teachers, particularly along the Rio Grande and throughout the Southwest. It is being used in El Paso, Laredo, Austin, New Mexico, Houston, and Florida (30).

Long Island University: Teacher Intern Program

This program became operational in September 1969. It requires no supplementary funds but operates with existing budgetary structures. Teacher interns are jointly appointed to full-time assignments and supportively supervised by the public schools and the Graduate School of Education of the university. Candidates may be either persons partially prepared for teaching as undergraduates or liberal arts graduates who are interested in teaching. Minimum preparation is the completion of 12 credits of professional education courses and the bachelor's degree with average and test scores sufficient to grant admission to the Graduate School of Education.

Interns serve as first-year teachers with the support of a teacher-trainer provided by the school. Each unit of eight interns has additionally a bilingual intern and an art intern. Each two units have a resident professor who coordinates work of the two teacher trainers and the language and art supervisors, with the interns. Each two units of interns are considered a class. Three afternoons a week they meet after the children have left the school for: (a) a methods class with the supervisor; (b) a group conference; and (c) a teaching theory class. All course work is related to the work done by the intern in the classroom and supplements the daily assistance by the resident professor and teacher trainers.

The objectives of the program are: (a) certification through performance; (b) effecting pupil transition between two cultures; (c) modification of teaching practice in inner-city schools; and (d) innovation within the existing budgetary structures (74).

Brigham Young University, Utah: Elementary Education Intern Program

The program includes 75 education majors. Training begins in January with special class scheduling. The interns are assigned for the first 2 weeks of the term to the elementary classrooms in which they will be teaching the following autumn. This period is spent in observing different teachers, preparing materials, doing research for teaching units, and assuming many of the usual responsibilities of student teachers or aides.

The next 6 weeks in college involve study, research, and work sessions to meet the education methods requirements, followed by another 2 weeks in the elementary school focused on actual teaching experiences. Another 6 weeks of college work completes the required education classes. Intern coordinators chosen from the experienced teachers in the cooperating schools work directly with three interns each for the 8 weeks in the school and act in an advisory capacity for the remainder of the semester. An intern supervisor on the university faculty advises on graduation requirements, placement, and teaching procedures.

The interns have their own comments on the program.

One intern coordinator describes interns as a threat to the old standbys. "They say," she explains, "how nice and teaching methods used. They are young people [who don't appreciate that a school day is from 8 a.m. to 3 p.m.] working, producing, and sincerely excited

about education for education's sake. They see comparatively inexperienced teachers surpassing them in teaching and forcing them to change for fear of being replaced."

. . . . . .

"It is a realistic approach to preparing young people for what teaching entails. You see the whole school program from beginning to end rather than just a few weeks' segment." . . . "I've never in my life worked so hard but when I finish this internship, I feel I will be able to go anywhere and successfully contribute to the education of my children" (33: 3).

Rayton, Missouri: NCTEPS Demonstration Center

This program was initiated in 1961 to aid approximately 50 beginning teachers in elementary schools with three helping teachers who offer demonstration lessons and introduce materials. It was later expanded to include established teachers. The program has never been regarded as completely final in structure or organization. The teacher and helping teacher work together in solving problems and experimenting with new ideas and techniques.

The faculty of Rayton Elementary Schools numbers with approximately 50 beginning teachers each year. The three helping teachers are assigned by grade levels, each responsible for his or her own grade in all ten elementary schools.

The methods used involve the helping teacher offering demonstration lessons in the area requested by the teacher, followed by a short conference to provide additional ideas. The helping teachers also introduce new materials through demonstration lessons and inservice classes, and they relieve the beginning teacher who is then able to observe another teacher on the same grade level. Additional help is given on specific, serious problems, as well as assistance in idea sharing and keeping up on research (22).

Santa Barbara, California: Inservice Teacher Training Program at the Center for Coordinated Education

This was an experimental 3-month program in 27 school districts. It attempted to train more than 500 inservice teachers to teach selected cognitive skills to some 15,000 students, ranging from grades 1 through 10. The three elements incorporated in the program were: (a) a specific teaching task; (b) a series of instructional materials; and (c) a set of teaching methods. The program emphasized a school-based total-staff approach, and the findings included the following conclusions:

1. A practicing teacher makes an excellent trainer of teachers.
2. Changing the behavior of a group is often easier than changing the behavior of an individual.
3. The ineffectiveness of much inservice effort is attributable not so much to teacher resistance as to the ineffectiveness of the educational systems used (103).

NASSP Three-Year Experimental Induction Project

The National Association of Secondary School Principals accepted proposals from three quite dissimilar school districts--Detroit, Michigan, public schools--a large urban system; Richmond, Virginia,public schools--an intermediate-size urban system; and St. Louis County, Missouri,public schools--25 small, adjacent school districts.

Basically, the Project on the Induction of Beginning Teachers attempted to give new teachers some extra time and extra help so that they might learn more effectively those things about teaching and the school that can be learned only on the job. It was also hoped to identify those factors which enable teachers to become better teachers more quickly than they ordinarily would and, because of the satisfactions gained, remain in teaching (118).

Kanawha County, West Virginia: Multi-Institutional Education Center (MITEC)

This is a cooperative program involving a consortium of seven diverse teacher education colleges, the state department of education, and a public school system. It is designed to improve the quality of teaching and of laboratory experiences for students of teaching. The Center is governed by an advisory committee composed of college and county representatives, a teacher, a principal, the professional organizations, and representatives of the state department of education. Together they set the policy and establish guidelines by which the Center functions. The program is jointly financed by the colleges and public school system without federal funds.

The Center coordinator, jointly hired, places 500 student teachers, plans the cooperative inservice training for supervising teachers and student teachers, and acts as liaison between the college and public schools.

Through the Center approach both colleges and schools have benefited. The seven colleges are seeking to answer students' questions of relevancy and are re-evaluating their curriculum. The colleges exchange ideas and are using interaction analysis, simulation, games, minicourses, teaching problems laboratories, microteaching, and interpersonal labs in education classes, as well as in inservice for supervising teachers. They are also designing many of their own protocol materials. Much of the hardware can be shared by the colleges, thus enabling greater flexibility in individualizing teacher education.

Through special counseling, college sophomores and juniors are given many choices of activities prior to student teaching. These modules of experiences are available within the school system as well as in the community. Students work, for example, as tutors, teacher aides, at youth centers, with outdoor education programs, in hospitals, and with home bound children. Most of these experiences provide opportunities with disadvantaged Appalachian youth. During their junior year, the colleges are planning cooperative methods which may be taught in the public school by a team of teachers from the school system and the several colleges. College students have also been involved in summer programs and in planning with the faculty as they prepare to implement the new programs.

Special cooperative projects undertaken by the Center in 1971 encourage individualizing experiences in student teaching. These include an exchange program with McGill University in Montreal. Center student teachers who elect may spend 5 weeks at McGill, thus giving an international dimension to sharing teacher education ideas and practices. The Center, through a cooperative arrangement with the University of Pittsburgh and West Virginia State College, will offer a semester of inter-city experience for a group of student teachers who will represent each of the colleges in MITEC. Student teaching at the Charleston Job Corps Center for Women offers the student teachers opportunities to work in a setting in which individually prescribed instruction is featured. Student teachers may spend a month in the PACE Center working with reading clinicians, learning how to analyze, prescribe, and evaluate individual programs for children who have reading disabilities (76).

The Teacher Corps

The Corps was established by Congress late in 1965 as a national program to prepare inexperienced college graduates for a career of teaching disadvantaged children. "At that time, only a handful of universities--Syracuse, Antioch, Hunter College and a few others--were actively training teachers for urban teaching. None were directly concerned with the problems of teaching rural, Mexican-American, or Indian children" (44: 52).

Led by an experienced teacher, each team of graduates not to be education majors, study for degrees in education while they serve as a team in a public school. Programs are funded by the federal government, but operated by a university qualified to provide teacher training and by one or more local districts with large percentages of children from disadvantaged homes. Local control was further emphasized by legislative admendments in 1967. Intensive preservice training, centering on microteaching and sensitivity training, is provided for 8 to 10 weeks. A 2-year internship follows with at least half of it spent serving in schools and the remainder studying toward a degree, working in the community programs, and visiting parents in their homes.

There is a great deal of published material on the Teacher Corps, and some of the advantages and disadvantages of the program can best be indicated by quotations from these documents.

> The Teacher Corps is providing the interns with three experiences most beginning teachers don't have: actual experience teaching disadvantaged children in their regular schools, personal knowledge of the particular disadvantaged community, and relevant university training closely tied to their school experience (88: 55-56).
>
> Local schools can obtain the services of Teacher Corps interns if those schools are in areas having concentrations of children from low-income families. The interns work part time in the school in terms of three to ten, under the guidance of an experienced teacher. A portion of the school day is also devoted to work in the community related to the problems of the students. The rest of the intern's time is spent at the university and with their studies. . . . The appeal of a "national" program has helped to attract bright, imaginative people who had not previously planned to teach. The Teacher

Corps presents teaching as one of the great challenges in education today. It looks for excellence. It asks for warm, responsive people who are willing to engage themselves in the struggle to improve the opportunities of the poor. Thus the Teacher Corps is upgrading the image of teachers of the disadvantaged (64: 12-13).

Seasoned by work in a poverty area, corpsmen will not undergo the culture-shock that causes too many beginning teachers to drop out of the profession. And again, they will teach in the slum schools because they want to teach in slum schools (64: 14).

The *New York Times* has called the Teacher Corps the most imaginative educational idea to come out of Washington. I believe it is probably the most radical experiment in teacher education ever tried in America, and I think it can teach us educators a lot (64: 69).

The central theme or way the disadvantaged student can be helped is simply to have a teacher who believes that he can learn, and will insist and help him to learn. There is no magic formula for teaching the disadvantaged. Certainly such things as class size, teacher load, types and methods of instruction are important and can influence learning, but real teaching is a very personal thing and it settles down in the final analysis to the teacher and his students. If this relationship is not on solid ground, if the teacher and the student do not believe in each other, the progress that is likely to be made is very small (64: 79).

We all know that attitudes are hard to change, and teachers' attitudes are no exception. It is relatively easy to write a paper, to read a book, to hear a lecture, and be "revved up," but to really have a change in attitude takes some doing (64: 80).

Persons with new approaches, so-called "outside agitators," and people who wish to excite or "turn kids on" may very well be anathema to local centers of power and influence. And yet these may be the very persons who can really make a difference. By reacting defensively and structuring the NTC activities as adjuncts to existing programs, the principals lost a golden opportunity to innovate and experiment with diverse methods of staff utilization (64: 97).

This quotation, and the two which follow, indicate one of the difficulties which faced the program--the fact that it is federally funded and consequently a part of the Washington bureaucracy, it is particularly vulnerable to alteration and even sabotage, at the hand of local authorities and school administrators.

Local school systems have short-circuited an attempt at federal information. In doing so, they may have destroyed a program which held great promise for innovation, experimentation, and ultimate improvement of education in low-income areas. Three conclusions emerge which help to explain why this happened:

1. By absorbing into its structure persons with vested interests in the school system, the NTC transferred control of team leaders to building principals.
2. By controlling the actions of team leaders, or by taking advantage of their power in an organization upon which the NTC was totally

dependent, building principals have exercised effective control over local programs.

3. Under the pressures of local and national centers of power, the NTC has gradually altered its stance and has been forced to accept the structuring of local programs in a manner which is clearly dysfunctional to its continued existence as an agency of reform and innovation (64: 95-96).

The comment of one intern in an urban school system may serve as the NTC's epitaph: "They blew it, baby. They had a chance to really make a difference, but they copped out" (64: 98).

Fortunately, the epitaph was premature, for at the time of this writing the Teacher Corps is still in existence, and as long as it exists there remains the hope that it may be able to fulfill its early promise.

In the opinion of many of the interns, the university course work was uninteresting and irrelevant to their needs in the schools, and they resented courses taught by professors who had no experience with the disadvantaged. Despite these feelings, most interns indicated a belief that they had made meaningful contributions in the schools which they had served. Another major concern voiced by many interns was how much responsibility or freedom should they be allowed in trying out innovative techniques in the classroom (64: 100).

Five recent reports give an up-to-date picture of some aspects of the Teacher Corps Program.

University of Southern California, Los Angeles. This is a report on a 2-year program preparing teachers to work with such diverse racial and ethnic groups as Negroes, Mexican-Americans, poor whites, Japanese, Koreans, and Samoans. The program had two phases: (a) preservice--academic course work, community field activities, special workshops, demonstrations, and meetings; (b) inservice--combination of gradually increasing responsibilities in local schools and course work. Innovations were introduced into the teaching strategies and curriculum at USC to facilitate corpsmen training--the corpsmen were treated as an intact group, block scheduling was used, and the structure and sequence of courses and inter-relationship of course work was re-examined (156).

University of Toledo, College of Education. This undergraduate program was designed to improve the educational process in urban poverty areas and to focus on human sensitivity; cooperative efforts by the university, school system and community; and instructional organization within the school. A preservice program included community activities and a seminar; the inservice program during the junior and senior school years included a team-teaching internship in local schools, with concurrent seminars on societal factors, instructional organization, contemporary learning-teaching processes, educational technology and research. There was an inservice summer program of liberal arts experiences, and community involvement continued throughout the two years (156).

Oregon State University. In this program 29 intern teachers were prepared to work in both rural and urban areas. The 2-year master's degree program included two summers of orientation and coursework and 2 years of internship, during which the students were involved for 60 percent of the time with school activities (observation, small group tutoring, and large group instruction with all age groups in a variety of subject areas) and 40 percent of the time in college courses and community involvement. The cooperating school districts were Portland, Coos Bay, Hood River, and Lincoln County (91).

New Mexico State University. The goals of this program were: (a) to provide immediate assistance to disadvantaged youth at an early age from teacher-interns specially equipped to diagnose their needs and provide appropriate learning experiences, (b) to provide sufficiently strong preparation for teaching so that interns would desire to continue teaching disadvantaged youth, and (c) to try new approaches leading to progressive development of more effective and efficient teacher education programs. Preservice training began for 28 campuses with laboratory and seminar classes which emphasized exploring the world of the public school classroom. Inservice training combined internship in the elementary schools with college courses. More theoretical courses were reserved for summer sessions to give the interns a chance to synthesize their learning. Among the program's effects on the university were the inclusion of three new courses in the curriculum, and a greater use of interdepartmental team teaching and video tape equipment. The impact on the schools was also strong, particularly in areas of teacher knowledge of new methods and materials and practice of team teaching (287).

University of Georgia. The College of Education has proposed a further extension of the Teacher Corps concept in connection with the model programs. The often community involvement in the Corps programs where the plans often most of the decisions and plans have been made. The extensive preparation of the interns requires participation by the local community in the planning of that preparation, and the model programs, through their various provisions for local involvement, provide an excellent vehicle for accomplishing this. The Georgia Education Model, for example, alleviates a segment of the continuing inservice education of the teachers in cooperation planning by the local community, the teacher, and the school system (2).

Queens College, Flushing: The BOOST Project

The BOOST Project (Building Opportunities for Education for Disadvantaged Groups in Education) was carried on by Queens College of the City University of New York from 1965 through 1968. The ultimate purpose of the Project was to make modifications in the professional preparation of secondary school teachers to better prepare them for teaching in the depressed area junior and senior high schools of New York City.

There were two main segments of the program, the School Project and the After-School Project, and it is the former which will be described in most detail.

The School Project. The primary purpose of the School Project was to provide an opportunity for the College participants to study the problems of recent graduates of the teacher education program as they taught in difficult schools in relatively poor neighborhoods. The planners of the study decided that intensive investigation of a few teachers working with a limited number of pupils would produce more insights than extensive efforts based on the examination of the work of many teachers with hundreds of pupils under varied conditions. This decision was based on the conviction that genuine appreciation of the teacher's difficulties necessitated an understanding of the children whom they taught. Consequently the investigation of the problems of teaching in a difficult school focused on the efforts of three teachers, aided by a coordinator, in teaching three classes of children for 3 years.

Three teachers and 85 children under the general supervision of the coordinator were organized as a small-school-within-a-school in an old junior high school in a depressed area. Throughout the study the work of the school participants was characterized by group analysis and group decision followed by cooperative action. Such important concerns as organizing classes, designing evaluation instruments, and establishing criteria for grading were subjects of teacher judgment.

A systematic effort was made to record the experiences of the teachers and their ideas concerning the children through teacher diaries, case study reports, and quarterly reports on lesson plans.

The role of the coordinator evolved from meeting the professional needs of the Project teachers and from studying the educational needs of the Project pupils. For the teachers he became a resource person in helping adapt the curriculum to pupil needs, in suggesting methods, in securing materials, and in establishing discipline. Because the Project design emphasized cooperative relationships, the coordinator was able to emphathize with and to support the teachers in their exacting tasks while acting as a guide in the development of their professional skills. To the pupils the coordinator served as informal guidance counselor, arbiter of constructive discipline, and parent surrogate. As needs changed within the small-school structure, the coordinator's functions changed also. Since the general description of the coordinator's role in the Project proposal provided the flexibility necessary to adapt to the dynamics of the small-school situation, such modifications were possible.

Three years of experience with underprivileged children convinced the staff that the regular prescribed course of study was not suitable. Particularly in social studies and science there are too many topics, none of which are fully developed enough for the children to comprehend. Consequently the teachers modified the curriculum, selecting the topics that were most meaningful and supplying the necessary background. They found that the pupils responded well to any topics that dealt with personal relationships. They were curious about their bodies and about problems of race. Like all adolescents, they liked stories of adventure and mystery, but because of their emotional immaturity they also enjoyed fairy tales and fantasy. The teachers learned to become diagnosticians and to take cues daily from the children's responses.

Although a teacher doesn't exactly have to play it by ear, she does need to be so skilled in methodology that she can use any one of a variety of techniques that will work with a particular group of children in achieving a particular goal. The BRIDGE children, when they came to the junior high school, were not prepared to work independently for any length of time, nor were they able to carry on class discussions for more than a few minutes. Beginning with concrete short-term tasks which had meaning and interest, the teachers had to guide the children step by step. Visual aids, stories, and experiments directly related to the topic gave extended meaning to basic concepts. Throughout their studies the children needed to know why they were doing something and how to do it. They needed to have specific directions and continuous appraisal--to know whether they were right or wrong. They also needed to be encouraged continuously to be stimulated to ask questions. The teachers learned to structure lessons carefully but to change pace and activity if restlessness or apathy was evident. Patiently and gradually the teachers moved from more to less teacher-directed activity. Great progress was made in the student's ability not only in following directions and persisting at a task, but in developing initiative, responsibility, and cooperation. The children especially liked having the teacher read aloud, working on highly structured worksheets where they could check their progress daily, dramatizing stories, and using art materials to illustrate their social studies reports. Many were especially interested in the science laboratory work. Although they came with few manipulative skills, they learned to handle materials carefully and developed the curiosity to experiment and discover.

The maintenance of order and discipline remained a problem throughout the Project. Many of the Project children were self-controlled and receptive to the efforts of the teachers. However, the proportion of children with rather severe emotional difficulties was higher than might usually be expected in this number of youngsters. These children often engaged in behavior which was difficult for the teachers to control. The teachers reported that many of their pupils had difficulty in accepting individual responsibility, were unwilling to work cooperatively, had a limited capacity to adapt themselves to new situations, and engaged in rivalry for the teacher's attention. Occasionally foul language, shouts, fights, sullen withdrawal, and pupil persecution of each other would disrupt the classrooms.

The Project efforts to meet this problem were based on the assumption that understanding and acceptance of the children combined with appropriate classroom procedures would do much to alleviate these difficulties. The teachers and supervisors shared their problems and engaged in both informal and formal study of the children. They gained insight into the intellectual, emotional, social, and physical characteristics of these children. They grew in their ability to establish and maintain the rules and procedure necessary for carrying on classroom instruction. They learned to prepare the children for changes, to punish without rejecting, and to assert themselves in a clear and forceful manner. Throughout the Project they sought to make the content and activities used in their teaching more appropriate and meaningful. The supervisor supported and gave direction to their efforts. Though Utopia was never achieved, progress toward better discipline was made.

The teachers and school administrators approved the small-school-within-a-school organization. They saw the 3-year relationship as giving them an opportunity to get to know each other in great depth. The teachers felt they were able to plan better as each year began. They felt they knew the strengths and weaknesses of their pupils in detail and could tailor their plans and action to the needs of the pupils as they understood them. They felt that the 3-year period gave them the opportunity to provide needed repetition, to give sustained training in classroom routines, to break down psychological barriers to learning, and to follow the pupils' growth toward long-term goals. Perhaps they cherished most of all the feeling that they were given an opportunity to make an important contribution to the lives of pupils who needed them. It was only in controlling the behavior of the children that there was some feeling that the 3-year continuty increased difficulties. Even here the teachers would probably agree that their shortcomings were more related to their general effectiveness as teachers than to the organizational framework within which they worked.

The pupils, too, with minor exceptions, reflected their teachers' approval of the plan. They knew they were well known. They knew that some pupils took advantage of the affection and concern with which their teachers regarded them. But they had lived in a junior high school for 3 years where teachers reacted to them as individuals and tried to help them.

The After-School Program. The primary purpose of this aspect of the BRIDGE Project was to bring the Queens College undergraduates into meaningful contact with the young adolescents who attend schools in the depressed areas of the city. Several after-school centers were organized. The largest number in operation at any one time was five, though six junior high schools were used during the 3 years of the Project. Four of the schools were in Queens, two of them primarily attended by Negroes and two with more heterogeneous student bodies. The other two were located in Manhattan.

An after-school center consisted of approximately ten activity groups, each led by a Queens College undergraduate with a supervisor in general charge. The activities were primarily tutorial in nature, but an intensive effort was made to interpret tutoring broadly to include cultural enrichment as well as intensive study of some isolated skill. Though there were reports that the policy was occasionally violated in spirit, attendance was supposed to be voluntary. During the 3 years of the Project, approximately 1,100 pupils attended the centers for periods of time ranging from one to twenty sessions (14).

Battelle Memorial Institute, Ohio: Guide for Urban-Teacher Development

This might be described as a do-it-yourself teacher improvement program aimed at the teacher educator. The document is presented in the form of a descriptive workbook, intended to be used and not just read. The four main sections cover the aims and goals of teacher development, its role and function, its program, and its resources. Each of these sections contains content and activities designed to help the user actively plan his teacher-development programs. The current principles and practices are outlined,

followed by a description of more desirable principles and practices, and the user is then introduced to activities designed to help him measure his local conditions and these measurements and subsequent judgments are used to plan his program (102).

Additional Programs

There are minimum details of other programs which may be of value to the reader. They suggest the wide variety of approaches which have been tried and also hint at the apparent need for better communication and idea-sharing between the various institutions to avoid unnecessary duplication of effort (2).

Immaculate Heart College, Los Angeles: self-directed changes in an educational system. This program intended for both preservice and inservice teachers is carried on in conjunction with the Behavioral Sciences Institute at La Jolla. Participants meet for weekend encounter groups with staff members to develop self understanding, create a climate of openness and honesty, and nourish the creative capacities of individuals.

Temple City Unified School District, California: differentiated staff. In this program, salary, the assignment of responsibility, selection processes, and evaluation are varied on the basis of the teacher's experience, qualifications, and ability. The program also includes provisions for implementing the ideas of the professional staff. The various teaching roles include: (a) teaching research associate, (b) teaching curriculum associate, (c) senior teacher, (d) staff teacher, (e) academic assistant, and (f) educational technician.

Cherry Creek School District and the University of Colorado: comprehensive teacher education program. In this 7-year program of formal education, plus work training and service experiences, progressive transition to classroom duties starts in the third year and increases to full time in the sixth and seventh years. Tenure is granted on completion of the seventh year. The program is basically a reorganization of the professional sequence allowing for earlier induction to field experiences.

Colorado State College at Greeley, Institute for Child Study: remote teacher learning center. The program involves the development of videotaped training units which are sent to the particpants who then videotape their own teaching and send the tapes to the center for criticism and recommendations. Participants have initial orientation in summer sessions, in on-campus 1-week workshops, or in concentrated 2-day sessions. The program was still in an experimental stage in 1968 when this report was made.

Atlanta, Georgia Public Schools and four area colleges: differentiated staffing. This was a pilot study which provided long-term field experience from high school through the post-graduate internship year. Potential teachers served as teacher aides while still in high school, during college they spent at least one-quarter of a year in teaching activities, during their senior year they assumed considerable teaching responsibility, and they entered a closely supervised internship after completing the bachelor's degree. The experience involved different schools and different cultural communities.

Southern Illinois University, Edwardsville: NEXTEP. Established with support from the Central Midwestern Regional Educational Laboratory and the Office of Education, the Novel Exploratory Teacher Education Program (NEXTEP) was concerned with inservice education of public school teachers in professional competency and personal relations. It made use of individualized lab work and periodic meetings with the university faculty.

Northwestern University, Illinois: tutorial and clinical program. This program was intended to individualize teacher education by involving students in more direct relationships with pupils and schools and by developing teaching competency through direct analysis and supervised practice. It made use of tutorials and clinical experiences of observating, tutoring, planning, teaching, and evaluating.

Kansas State Teachers College at Emporia: experimental study of professional education for secondary teachers. This was a fifth year program for liberal arts graduates. The objectives were to have knowledge relating to teaching identified and organized in a systematic fashion and to implement a series of laboratory experiences to accompany this professional content. There were three phases: (a) a semester of intense observation on closed circuit television, with coordinated reading; (b) service as aides and helpers in public school classrooms, plus reading and seminars; and (c) student teaching, testing through practical application the concepts already acquired.

Gorham State College, Maine: pilot project with job corps center. In this program, college students received training in teaching disadvantaged women at the center, while a group of women from the center were admitted as students to the college.

University of Maryland, teacher education center. In cooperation with school districts in Maryland and the District of Columbia, the center provided a coordinated program of preservice and inservice experiences. Students were in the schools for 1 day a week for one semester during their junior year, while in their senior year they spent either 8 weeks, if preparing for secondary teaching, or 16 weeks for elementary teaching. University supervisors served as curriculum and teacher education consultants.

Hope College, Michigan, Education Department in cooperation with Douglas Elementary School. This was a program to prepare affect-oriented teachers who would be concerned with the total development of the child. It involved two main aspects: (a) miniteaching, in which student teams spent 2 weeks preparing lessons, after which they taught them, with guidance and evaluation from the college instructor; and (b) microteaching, in which students were assigned to experienced classroom teahers full time for a year.

University of Minnesota, Duluth: Correlated Teacher Education Program (COTEP). This 2-year program made greater use of and provision for early induction to field experiences, individualized study, and cooperative effort by the college and public school staffs.

Montclair State College, New Jersey: Special Programs for Urban Teachers (SPURT). This program was designed to provide realistic preparation of teachers and to increase faculty concern for the educational

problems of disadvantaged youth. Three types of learning experiences were included: (a) experience in human relations through course work and workshops; (b) background in sociology, psychology, and professional education through courses oriented toward urban problems; and (c) fieldwork in urban schools and community agencies.

Fordham University, School of Education, New York: apprentice teacher program. Open to undergraduate and graduate students, this program normally took 1 year to complete. The first phase included apprenticeship as a teacher assistant, working for about 4 hours a day for the entire term under the direction of a classroom teacher and the supervision of the university instructor. During the second semester, students worked as apprentice teachers in a different grade and enrolled in the appropriate learning and teaching course.

Pace College, New York: apprentice teacher program. This formed part of the Elementary School Teacher Education Program and included three phases: (a) observation which provided a simple comprehensive overview of the teaching act and included sensitivity training sessions and observation of demonstration lesson; (b) intensive study of curriculum and instruction, work with videotape recordings, experience in tutoring and small group instruction; and (c) practice teaching on a full-time basis for one semester.

Center for Cooperative Action in Urban Education, Rochester, N.Y.: comprehensive teacher training program. This was a cooperative program with the Rochester Public Schools and the State University of New York College at Brockport. It was designed to involve students in a comprehensive program of work in urban public schools for a professional year as student teachers or interns. Student teachers worked with a clinical professor assigned full-time to the program schools. Interns worked as an instructional team and as teaching associates under the direction of a helping teacher. The project also involved work in community programs such as Action for a Better Community and an anti-poverty agency.

Oregon State Department of Education and cooperating colleges and school districts. This statewide program was designed to improve the induction process. Its objective was to develop and implement a specialized curriculum for school and college supervisors who work to improve the supervision of the field experience phase of teacher education.

Portland State College, Oregon: episode teaching. This program planned for trainees to achieve teaching competence sooner and in a more rewarding way. Episodes were self-contained; the topic could be derived from the student's own interests, and all the planning was done by him, with the supervisor's role limited to observation, analysis, and feedback.

Wisconsin State University, La Crosse: micro-team teaching. This pilot program gave student teachers increased responsibility for planning, executing, and evaluating an instructional program, and gave classroom teachers the opportunity to learn the dynamics of team teaching. Teams of two student teachers and one experienced teacher operated in a single, self-contained classroom with 25 to 30 children. The team members developed their own team-teaching operation.

Bellevue Public Schools and Washington State University: practicum based on performance criteria. Students in this program were given 25 instructional tasks to be undertaken individually. Feedback came from the instructional system, the students' peers, the faculty, and recording devices.

Far West Laboratory for Education Research and Development: mini-course. This packaged program is based on the microteaching concept and the use of the video tape recorder to develop specific teaching skills. The course consisted of four instructional sequences dealing with three behaviors: (a) the teacher views an instruction film on the skill to be learned, (b) he designs a short lesson to apply this skill, (c) the microteaching session employing the skill is recorded on video tape, and (d) self-evaluation forms are completed and the lesson replanned in the light of the results.

Upper-Midwest Regional Educational Laboratory: teacher education structure via consortium. This program planned to establish centers staffed by participating college faculty to serve as experience bases for teachers of disadvantaged pupils. The centers, located in the inner city, on Indian reservations, and in rural communities, were to create situations where students received experience in educating the disadvantaged, with performance criteria for determining the trainees' effectiveness. They would also provide inservice experience for participating school systems.

Brigham Young University, Utah: microteaching program. In this experimental, individualized program, students could qualify for secondary certification on the basis of their ability to perform certain tasks. The student prepared and conducted a 5 to 7 minute lesson which was recorded on video tape for evaluation by the instructor and student.

Wayne State University, Michigan: team internship. A teacher-director selected from the public elementary schools was assigned full responsibility for two classrooms and given the help of four student interns. Working as a team or in pairs under the teacher-director and a clinical instructor from the college, the interns planned all classroom activities for the children. Each intern spent 80 percent of the week in the school.

Breakthrough in Teacher Education. James C. Stone, in *Breakthough in Teacher Education* (115), describes 43 innovative and experimental programs supported by the Ford Foundation and representing a "strategic investment in prestigious institutions whose innovations would be assured of a serious hearing by educators" (115: 15). The criteria used in selecting these programs were:

1. They were designed to prepare teachers for conditions from 1964 through 2000 with ungraded classes, teaching machines, educational television, and team teaching.
2. They were planned jointly by university departments of education, representations of academic departments in the university, and public school teachers and administrators.
3. They should incorporate changes in elementary and secondary schools as well as in colleges.

4. The public school was to accept a considerable amount of the responsibility for the recruitment, education, and professional introduction of the teacher.
5. They should attempt to place teacher education in the mainstream of higher education by bringing academic professors and professors of education together and by increasing cooperation between colleges and schools.
6. They should build upon earlier Ford-supported programs.
7. The prospective teacher should get his initial experience as a junior member of a teaching team.

Six undergraduate programs were included: Webster and Michigan State for elementary teachers; Barnard for secondary teachers; and Marshall, Middlebury, and Missouri for both elementary and secondary teachers. Twelve 5-year and fifth-year programs resulting in a teaching certificate rather than a MAT degree were at George Washington and New York University for elementary teachers; Buffalo, Cornell, and Rochester for secondary teachers; and UCLA, Central Michigan, Claremont, Hawaii, Syracuse, and Wisconsin for both. There were 25 MAT programs at Brown, University of Chicago, Carnegie, Converse, Duke, Emory, Fairleigh, Dickinson, Harvard, Indiana, Johns Hopkins, Kansas State, Maine, Miami, North Carolina, Notre Dame, Northwestern, Oberlin, Peabody, Pittsburgh, Reed, Southern California, Stanford, Vanderbilt, Wayne State, and Yale.

This "Breakthrough" program sought to create a scattering of models from which new patterns in teacher education might spread. Some results which were quickly apparent were an improvement in the quality of candidates, new sources of teacher supply were tapped, professional staying power was improved, teaching internship was a central and successful aspect of many programs, and public school involvement with the preservice teacher education was improved. Deficiencies included over-optimistic programs, concentration on secondary school teachers, the absence of state colleges from the program, geographic imbalance, and the wide gap between theory and practice.

Summary. Many people are not only aware of the problems facing beginning teachers, but are actively trying to solve them. How effective some of these attempted solutions may prove to be might well be questioned. Some of the smaller and more modest programs seem to have the greatest understanding of the human values involved, and yet these are in many cases the programs most vulnerable to early death through removal of funding. Nowhere does there seem to be any consideration, or even mention, of the effect on the children and their parents when a successful program which has brought new hope to them for the first time is suddenly discontinued. The official reasons may be legitimate, but to the educationally unsophisticated world of the inner city, it must seem that the children are being treated as mere units in a system. How much faith can be placed in officially expressed concern for improved education when programs which are helping the children to learn are suddenly discontinued?

Some of the more ambitious programs exhibit alarming tendencies to become so enamoured of their own research and methodology that they lose sight of the reason for their existence. Their fruits are likely to be more impressive research reports, and not better teachers or happier children.

THEORIES AND PROPOSALS FOR CHANGE

If it is difficult to evaluate programs which have been implemented, it may seem completely impossible to give any useful judgment on the many opinions, theories, and hopeful speculations which have been offered. However, perhaps the material already considered will provide a background on which to project these ideas, so that they will make a valid contribution to the study.

As an introduction, here are the words of Jacqueline Grennan, former head of Webster College, who is widely accepted as a successful innovator.

> I am convinced that the focus of the educational process is both learning how to learn and learning to learn. Then teachers who will spend their professional and non-professional lives exploring reality must spend their undergraduate education exploring physical, biological, social, and spiritual reality--growing in the ability to see patterns in reality and to conceptualize from them. From this viewpoint, it seems foolhardy and even impossible to attempt to categorize general education, fields of concentration, and professional education. An exploratory music course is all of these and may best be approached by learning from children how to learn music. An exploratory cognition course liberalizes a person to seek behavioral patterns the rest of his life. Any really great course is liberalizing education, freeing the student to probe further, driving him to probe further. If "professional" education focuses on this learning process, then it, in a unique way, cannot be oriented toward technical training (115: 34).

Most educators have a long way to go before they can reach this goal. The problem is where to start, and though there are plenty of suggested answers, the solution is far from simple.

Four regional conferences which were held as part of the NDEA National Institute for Advanced Study in Teaching Disadvantaged Youth to identify and clarify the relevant issues, reached this, among other conclusions. "A relevant teacher education . . . will be attained only when it takes roots in actual classroom experience in a community context with a full complement aboard--the college professor, the experienced teacher, the student, the children, and community spokesmen" (66: 13).

Various action programs were proposed to implement the ideas coming from each of these conferences.

In Los Angeles:

1. A core group of beginning and student teachers working in Watts with community workers and professors of education planned to hold regular

meetings in the community to review curriculum needs at elementary and secondary levels and to assist teachers in their efforts to meet these needs.
2. The National Student Association planned to set up a tutorial program using students from California State College at Los Angeles along with the neighborhood association in Watts as tutors. The Association also hoped to plan extracurricular programs for them.

In New Orleans:

1. The conference participants planned to meet with representatives from other colleges and universities to discuss approaches to the faculty members in the departments of education.
2. The new Community Action Council for Tulane University Students (CACTUS) was asked to help in coordinating other university student groups to implement the conference proposals.

In Detroit:

1. The possibility of placing students as workers in Office of Economic Opportunity programs during the summer of their junior year was to be investigated.
2. Saturday clsses for children and their parents were to be formed to involve parents in school activities, provide extra remedial work for the children, and increase the communication between the teacher and the community.

In the Northestern Region:

1. A conference for beginning teachers was planned in New York.
2. The Student National Education Association in various states was to be invited to work in a cooperative program to implement the recommendations of the conference.

In his 1969 address to the Dean's Conference on Teacher Education at the University of Minnesota, Don Davies discussed the working of the Education Professions Development Act and the concept of accountability, the idea that schools and colleges must accept responsibility for the success or failure of their students. He asked, "How do we go about the 'simple' task of treating each child as an individual human being?" (28: 4) and admitted that "previous EPDA programs . . . had little concern for the target population of children to be served by the personnel being trained. Our new priorities put the child first" (28: 12). He also said, "The only way we can bring about change in education is by bringing about change in the people who control and operate the schools and colleges," (28: 4) and also "teacher training institutions and local school systems will be accountable to the community for the quality of educational services delivered and teachers will be accountable for what children learn" (28: 15).

This will probably prove to be easier said than done. As Leslie Hart points out, "Teachers may talk of willingness to change, until they find what it may cost them in loss of power and expertise. Then they may discover an amazing array of reasons why change should be postponed just a little while longer" (47: 317). Hart is highly critical of the existing

American educational system, particularly of the class-and-grade arrangement. He offers detailed proposals for an open school system and includes a listing of some of the schools which are already using at least some of the innovations he describes.

Yeshiva University, whose Project Beacon was considered previously, published four papers in 1967 which considered four major areas in which change was needed (58). These were:

1. Concern for attitudes and behavior (administrative commitment, cooperative school-college system efforts, culture shock, staff and student attitudes and behavior, and sensibility training);
2. Concern for people (teaching ethnic groups, selecting students, human resources, involving community and parents, and learning from special programs);
3. Concern for techniques (preservice student teaching, field work, inservice education, instructional resources and equipment, and innovative methods); and
4. Concern for special curriculum aspects (philosophical and psychological bases, role of the humanities, reading and language arts, and bilingualism).

Robert Bush gives a good description of the ideal situation.

> If the teaching is right for the pupil, there are few other obstacles that cannot be overcome. A good liberal education--an education which liberates the mind from the shackles of prejudice and superstition and the confines of a single culture, that permits one to move freely and joyfully in the past and the present and to speculate objectively with his fellowmen about the future--is a foremost aim of our schools. How far short we fall of this ideal is probably directly related to how far the teachers in the classrooms have themselves fallen short in their liberal education (10: 4).

The achievement of such an educational climate is not easy.

> Significant improvements in education are difficult to bring about. Unfortunately, throughout history, and especially so at the present time, "educational change" has become a surrogate for "improvement." There is little question but that our educational institutions are being profoundly influenced today by integration, urban ghettos, increased teacher militancy and a host of other complex external forces. There is little evidence, however, that such changes represent improvements; they appear to be rather forced compliance to the shifting social scene.

One can also witness, from the voluminous literature, many attempts on the part of educational personnel to direct internal improvement of educational programs. However well-intentioned such efforts may be, there is again little evidence that such "innovations" as improved teacher induction, team-teaching, programmed learning, and curriculum revisions have in fact brought about significant and lasting improvements in the quality of education provided for our youth. Why such good intentions fail is a hard question to answer. But it may well

be that they fail not in lack of effort or good intentions, but because they are insufficient to override the basic inadequacies of an educational system conceived in an earlier age and because educators persist in proposing yesterday's solutions to tomorrow's problems. In short, many of the internal changes implemented in today's schools represent a kind of "educational dabbling" (113: 1).

Accepting the fact that no one sector of the educational field can change the situation on its own, it may yet be helpful to consider the question in three main groupings--preservice, inservice, and inner city--to provide some kind of order before a final review of some general theories.

Murray Levine and George Feeney, in their 1969 study of student-teacher attitudes, made two relevant statements.

> Professional methods courses tend to define teaching as the proper preparation and presentation of the subject matter for the child to absorb. Student teachers are taught in educational methods courses that: if they prepare their materials properly, then the children will learn. Being able to impart subject matter is central to the student teacher's view of the self as a competent professional person. One may or may not wish to argue with that definition, but it is clear that imparting subject matter means imparting it to a receptive child. If one does not have a child who appears receptive, then one cannot teach. If one cannot teach, there is no way of validating one's professional competence. A situation in which children are viewed as unreceptive cannot be professionally gratifying.
>
> A second issue is somewhat more subtle. Teachers teach the curriculum and texts they are told to teach, by methods they are told are proper. It is our impression, based on observation and discussion that innovation and experimentation in teaching approaches are not encouraged within most schools, nor does the situation permit much attempt at innovation, although many inner city school situations cry for far reaching changes. Given this limitation, that the teaching method is viewed as tried and true, and not to be tampered with, then if the child is not receptive, there must be something wrong with him. If there is something wrong with him, then he'll never learn. If he'll never learn, there is no point in trying to teach him, particularly if he is older.
>
> Student teachers in the lower grades find that the children are more receptive to learning than expected, while student teachers in the upper grades find the opposite (73: 7-8).

The prescription that our teachers ought to have more liberal arts courses to prepare them for teaching subject matter fails to recognize that any kind of intellectual preparation removed from the actual classroom will prove inadequate in helping the teacher meet the psychological and social demands found there. Even the highly touted MAT programs leave much to be desired in that respect. While the pre-professional courses may be of some help to teachers in learning how to organize a course, and prepare a lesson, new teachers and student teachers are in agreement that the relatively few weeks of

full time practice teaching have provided their most valuable educational experience, which often is still insufficient, particularly in ghetto schools (73: 1).

Ward Mason's 1961 survey concluded that "the clear consensus was that practice teaching constitutes a helpful part of [the student teacher's] training" (77: 44). There is still general agreement that actual experience in the school is necessary at some stage, although the manner in which it is provided can make a great deal of difference to its value. The opinions on this subject range from the enthusiastic through an extensive middle ground of the "it's good provided it's done well" variety, to complete condemnation. The following quotations come from a variety of sources and serve to illustrate this divergence of view.

> It is simply not necessary to go on producing beginning teachers to whom school-as-it-really-is comes as a shock. Furthermore, the preservice program itself will "take" better if it is conducted in the realm of reality. To take our experimental students as an example once more, they griped about a lot of things but they never called their theory work "Mickey Mouse stuff" or "a waste of time." Without any formal course in psychology they somehow soaked up at least as much psychological insight as their schoolmates in the "regular program." Obviously, meaningful experiences can generate a desire to learn and a commitment to become expert rarely matched when theory is in a vacuum (132: 142-43).
>
> We would recognize that in no one teacher's classroom is the whole range of clinical learning available. Therefore, we would place each student teacher, not with one experienced teacher, but with several, and for varying lengths of time with each one. Expectations would be different in each clinical post (88: 28).
>
> Pre-service teachers should be exposed to a variety of school situations, either by personal experience or through simulation techniques. This exposure should include the total panorama of the most advantaged to the most disadvantaged setting (113: 19).
>
> Clinical experience with new teachers, and with student teachers, suggests very strongly that student teachers receive very little realistic pre-clinical preparation for what they face, and the preparation they do receive does not really permit an examination nor an understanding of the important changes in self which will take place when the young student encounters teaching responsibilities. There are many unexpressed fantasies about how the student will do all those nice things for children that his teachers never did for him. There is no realistic pre-clinical preparation for the fact that the only model the teaching student has to fall back upon in moments of stress is the introjected image of teachers past. There is no realistic preparation, nor opportunity afterwards to sort out the feelings when the student teacher finds himself responding in ways that are totally foreign to him and different from anything he ever expected he would experience. Students are not sure of themselves, their preparation is usually insufficient for the situation they encounter, and they suffer from not being able to assess their own values, or the children's need for structure and control, except as they are fortunate to work it out with a responsive master teacher (not all are), or by themselves (73: 6-7).

It is unfortunate that so many new teachers will have done their practice teaching in situations quite unlike those they will encounter in their first job. Whatever they have learned in their preparation for teaching seems to have only limited relationship to the reality they encounter in actual teaching assignments. In some instances the adjustment is far too difficult for an individual to make. Not infrequently he is lost to teaching at the end of the first year, if not before.

New teachers will vary also in terms of the resources they bring to bear upon the problems they will face in a first year of teaching--a capacity for adapting to new situations, a tolerance for frustration, a confidence in one's ability to handle adequately all the demands that teaching can make (100: 152).

Traditional practice teaching, which is offered on a limited basis . . . in the senior year and which covers something far less than the total spectrum of teaching activities, has really not given them the preservice kind of background and training to equip them with the versatility (they need) (106:38).

It is time for student teaching to be abandoned. Its functions are largely ceremonial ones--a rite of passage.

One of my colleagues refers to the student-teaching process as the "narrows" of the profession. He regards it as a point of cultural compression where teaching candidates learn that lessons and clocks are more important than children and what they learn. That is, his studies of student-teaching diaries persuade him that the neophytes learn nothing so much as to get through lessons on time at the expense of engaging children in some significant enterprise.

The classical student-teaching arrangement has spared us the hard analytic job of determining the many separate behaviors and behavior sequences demanded in the classroom. We have failed, for example, to analyze what it means to tutor an individual or how teachers maintain involvement with the learning task. Rather than do the analytic job and contrive appropriate training interludes, we have turned the job over to practitioners to whom we pay a pittance and over whom we have correspondingly little control. Besides, they are busy with the business of instruction on a full-time basis (88: 106-07).

At the college, we have a dual obligation to the student in his clinical experience. We have an obligation to show him the typical to ward off shock. We also have an obligation to show him the innovative to ward off complacency (88: 27).

Greater college-school cooperation is one way of overcoming some of this dissatisfaction with an increased use of internships to replace the traditional student teaching experience.

It is our impression that much of the formation of the professional identity of the teacher takes place during teacher education, or during the first year of teaching, and that if the functions which are incorporated within that sense of identity are narrowly defined, then the teacher will work in narrowly defined ways, and find satisfaction in narrowly defined ways (73: 8).

Just as school systems should share in the responsiblity for the preparation of future teachers, so should colleges be utilizing the talents available to them, in cooperation with the talents within the schools, to promote, plan, implement, and evaluate educational innovation within these schools. This is not the type of one-way plan it may at first glance appear to be but it is intended to be a truly cooperative venture resulting in widespread improvement of instructional programs as well as the strengthening of teacher education programs (88: 132).

Even if colleges of education should raise their expectations and tighten their procedures (and there are some signs that they are beginning to do so), the training will be largely unavailing unless school systems look upon the new teachers as apprentices rather than as finished products. Every first-year teacher should serve an apprenticeship within the schools, and every effort should be made not to cut the apprentice adrift until he is fully prepared to handle the job. Many models are proposed for how school systems and universities can work together to provide the support for the neophyte teacher in the first year of teaching. Most of these models call for team arrangements, where one or several neophytes work with a master teacher. The neophyte's work is constantly being appraised, and they are given many opportunities to test and retest their teaching abilities (135: 212).

Placing two interns in one classroom so that they can analyze each other's teaching and work cooperatively to improve their performance has exciting possibilities. This proposal places them under the direction of a college supervisor who is assigned twenty-four interns in twelve classrooms, and a school supervisor responsible for twelve interns in six classrooms. The college supervisor and two school supervisors comprise the team that plans and coordinates seminars for the interns and observations of their teaching behavior. With two interns assigned to each classroom, it is possible for seminars to be held during the day without the need for substitutes to man the classroom. Flexibility of this sort means that many activities otherwise difficult to include may be a part of the internship program. A particularly intriguing part of this plan is a Seminar in the Study of Teaching in which each intern participates once a week throughout his internship (88: 113).

One writer proposed that the internship be undertaken as a full member of a teaching team. After completing one year of internship at partial pay, the intern would become an assistant teacher for one year at minimum pay. His class load would be heavier (but still less than a full load of a regular teacher) and he would remain in the same teaching team. The college would continue to supervise his work; courses in methodology would be taken during this two-year program. Upon successfully completing the year as assistant teacher, he would receive his teaching certificate and a master's degree and become a regular teacher. This idea is similar to an internship-residency program in medicine (88: 112).

Undergraduate teacher preparation should include an internship period followed by further training and experience, to aid the beginning teacher in attaining higher levels or roles of instructional competence (113).

Even the college professors should be sent into the schools so that they will have first hand experience of what their students will be facing.

> This proposal seeks to improve the field of teacher education by providing opportunities for certain college professors of education to return to elementary or secondary school teaching for a year to gain "re-experience."
>
> Professors of education are too often charged with not practicing what they preach, and too many are guilty as charged. It is easy to find professors of educational methods who lack recent relevant classroom teaching experience in the public schools for which they are preparing teachers. . . . There is considerable evidence that the children of today have some characteristics which were not present in the generations which were taught years ago by today's "experts." There are many professors who have not taught children or youth since the advent of television and since Sputnick helped create intense pressures on children to achieve superior performance (88: 136).

Professors who have gone through this experience make it clear that the idea has considerable validity and an interesting account can be found in the report of the Thirteen Professors Project (69). The words of one professor who taught in a junior high school may be used to summarize their reactions.

> My final comment about the students is that they were challenging and fascinating. When I started on this initial venture into the public schools, I had a rather romantic image of teaching youngsters of this age. Sara Teasdale in one of her poems sums it up in a line: "children's faces looking up, holding wonder like a cup." I saw such an expression many times during that week, but it was fleeting rather than sustained, and sometimes it was furtive rather than open. I think I now understand a little better the problems of teaching junior high school students. These youngsters are growing inside and outside, socially and intellectually, and at different rates. Surely one of the important challenges facing their teachers is to help them understand and accept themselves during this period of rapid development. Surely, also, one of the important challenges facing college teachers who are assisting in the preparation of future teachers is to help these young people achieve a sense of personal competence. Too often, it seems to me, the assessment of competence is based largely upon academic achievement which is but one important variable. To really understand the relative importance of other variables, college teachers should periodically return to "where the action is" (69: 29).

The relationship between the college faculty and the students has a deep and lasting effect. "Teachers reported that their own teachers and professors were an important influence in teaching them how to teach" (75: 56). Whatever the influence of the college, however, the granting of a degree is by no means the final step in the teacher's education.

> A popular myth seems to prevail, that a degree in education and a certificate to teach adequately equip a beginner to carry a full teaching assignment from the very outset of his career. As a result, the unprepared beginner is too frequently misassigned and overloaded and then left to sink or swim during his first critical year of teaching (87: 3).

As we have seen, the beginning teacher still faces a number of problems for which he has no ready answer. His college courses are completed, but he still needs help. "Instead of turning to formal programs and to designated supervisory personnel, the beginning teachers generally relied upon their experienced fellow teachers for various kinds of help" (51: 20). A willing fellow teacher is probably the best source of practical information, but there are other questions which are not so easily handled. "The basic problems the beginning teacher faces are primarily subjective in nature--personal and psychological rather than strictly professional or academic. If teachers are to meet these problems, to realize their potentialities in working with pupils, it is essential for them to grow in self-understanding" (59: 49).

As the section on programs has shown, an increasing number of colleges and school systems are developing cooperative programs which enables them to work together and to provide the teacher with a training which will continue even beyond her first years in the school.

> I know that schools of education have made manful efforts to get at least some "observation" ahead of student teaching, even some "participating observation." They have tried a variety of measures to thread some experience into the fabric of professional education. In a few cases (and fortunately the number is growing) the experience is genuine and significant. But my hunch is that in most cases the "observation" and other devices are pretty trivial, rather remote and academic, with very little gut-level involvement. Rarely do they consitute an authentic introduction to the real and whole life of a teacher--and that is why, when the beginning teacher comes to you, you must start almost from scratch to provide that introduction.
>
> It is possible, without using any greater total of time, to build a program of professional education in which experience and intellectualization go hand in hand all the way, each reinforcing the other. In this process it is possible to turn out a beginning teacher who feels at home in the school and moves into its whole life naturally (not as a polished veteran performer--that would be too good to be true--and not without some aches and pains and fumblings, but nevertheless with a kind of readiness). In this process it is also possible, in fact essential, to build a partnership between school and college so that each of them reinforces the other, too, and can go on doing so in the teacher's first year (132: 139-40).
>
> The whole process of teacher education will be the result of a close working relationship between school and college. It should bring the college professor into much closer contact with teaching situations (for research, supervision and teaching purposes) and school personnel in direct touch with current educational theory and research.

> The mutual influence of the college group on the school group should serve to bring a reality factor to college teacher education and to school teaching a more solid theoretical foundation based on relevant research (31: 103-04).

Educational methods and the content of the curriculum now change so rapidly that if a teacher plans to use the methods learned in college for the rest of his professional life, he will be unable to meet the needs of today's children for very long. As a result, inservice education assumes an increasingly important role.

> In the making of a teacher, it is highly probable that inservice training is infinitely more important than preservice training. In most instances, the preservice preparation of a teacher cannot anticipate what life in a particular classroom will be like, nor does it equip a teacher to keep pace with rapid social and technological changes affecting education. . . . We might say that in perservice training the teacher learns <u>about</u> teaching and it is only later, in the reality of the classroom, that he actually learns <u>to teach</u>. . . . Our study of inservice education programs gave rise to this conclusion: the first two years of a teacher's experience are the most crucial. During this early period attitudes and beliefs are shaped, good and bad habits are acquired, and the basic characteristics of a teaching style are established (103: 4).

Also, if the experienced teacher is to be able to work effectively with the newcomers, he needs to be familiar with up-to-date ideas on theory and practice.

> The development of the acceptance of the fully trained professional as a career person who has at his disposal a small staff of assistants may well make a place for the transient teacher to serve at the outset in an apprentice capacity and give opportunity for others with less professional preparation to serve under the close supervision of a true professional. In this way the nucleus or hard core of professionals could be given status and reward which would guarantee a high degree of continuity and almost no dropout problem. The young person who finds the school atmosphere unsatisfactory would drop out before reaching full-fledged professional status, and dropouts among the paraprofessionals would be considered normal and would not be serious or alarming.
>
> This idea envisions teacher education as a cooperative enterprise engaged in by the school of education and the public school system with interchange of faculty and mutual respect. This is easier said than done (23: 9-10).

If the atmosphere is right and the school personnel are properly equipped, ". . . more constructive teacher learning can take place in this first year on the job than in four years of teacher training, but for this to happen there must be structure and direction" (56: 134-35). It is easy to ask more of a teacher than can be reasonably expected.

> Teaching, admittedly, is a job rather than a missionary calling. Nonetheless, one can come at the job in different ways. Perhaps because of a burgeoning technology, perhaps because bureaucratic rigidities often dissipate human incentive, or perhaps because our society has never acknowledged the true worth of a good teacher, there is an abiding danger that the classroom may become a place of organized routine rather than a place of excitement (103: 2).

But, as in most things, the ultimate responsibility rests on the individual.

> Educators, in the last analysis, must be responsible for their own strengths and weaknesses. Programs can be organized, training procedures can be prescribed, standards can be set, and performance can be assessed. Ultimately, however, we must have teachers who are self-directive, who participate in the organization of their own improvement. The education of spirit as well as mind stems from the kind of encounter which takes place between teacher and child, and if teachers are trained only to be obedient to prescriptions, the encounters they engage in with their students will be stale and importunistic (103: 3).

> What happens to these young, enthusiastic, ambitious teachers after only a few years in the classroom? It is easy enough to blame the schools for crushing the new teacher. It is just as easy to blame the colleges for an unrealistic teacher education program. As educators, however, we have little interest in the grand jury's problem of whom to indict. What concerns us is the more constructive question of how best to correct the situation (101: 709).

> As long as most of the reforms are restricted to pilot and demonstration projects, much limited in scope and impact, I am not at all confident that most schools are capable of meeting the problems of our times (135: vii).

Once again, we have dealt first with the situation as it affects all beginning teachers. We must now consider the special needs of the inner city and the means which can be employed to prepare students who will be ready, emotionally as well as intellectually, to meet the demands which will be made of them.

> College students preparing to teach in urban areas cannot be left in a state of apathy. On the contrary, they, more than any other students, must be influenced to become involved as active participants in the cause of educating the disadvantaged. Since contact with persons who can serve as models is an important means of effecting student change, it is necessary to secure professional, dedicated college and public school staff who believe in the particular urban teacher education program being offered and who will influence students under their aegis to take on similar values (46: 3).

Allan Ornstein makes an important point when he says, "Some teachers who successfully teach in ghetto schools could not successfully teach in middle-class schools, and some teachers who are ineffective in ghetto schools would be very effective elsewhere" (92: 2). The children of the ghetto come from a very different culture from those in the middle-class suburbs; their skills are different and they have different needs. "These children require not just teachers, but teachers of more ordinary ability, interest, and devotion" (97: 20).

No single teacher, of course, can dramatically change the situation, and a sensible appreciation of one's own limitations is necessary.

> The teacher can only try his best, nothing less, but nothing more. If you fall with one class, do not get perturbed or anxious, emotional or involved (unfortunately most teachers do). For the sake of your own equilibrium, leave your classroom and teaching problems in school. Do not allow your work to affect your personality (92: 6).

Although the importance of a thorough professional training in subject matter and methods is at least as great in the inner city as in more prosperous neighborhoods, the teacher's own philosophy and attitude count for more than anything else. "There are some teachers who have the commitment and ability to work with youngsters. In a ghetto school a teacher must have a personal philosophy and spirit which permits him to truly relate to his children and their community" (38: 128). This understanding must be much more than a sentimental desire to make the poor children feel loved and wanted.

> Ideally, the teacher is understanding, but not overly sympathetic; firm, but not inflexible; careful, but not exacting. He is not prejudiced. He has an intense commitment to his role, wants to teach, cares enough about these children to teach them, and is convinced that they can learn (92: 1).
>
> A teacher working with children in a ghetto society . . . has to have sensitivities and perception and understanding of the most humane kind. Attitudes and values unfortunately do not often change as a result of taking a course in a university classroom, no matter how skillful the presentation or how logical the arguments. Attitudes and values seem to change best under conditions of face-to-face contact (38: 124).

What may well be needed are large numbers of the type of young people who formed the majority of the volunteers in the Peace Corps.

> During their training Peace Corps volunteers are task-oriented rather than grade-oriented. They are learning particular skills and acquiring knowledge that will be immediately useful, rather than completing a series of courses for which they might see no purpose other than that these courses are required for certification or graduation. Their drive and motivation is internal rather than superimposed. But most of all, their preparation is perceived as the beginning of a period of temporary service rather than completion of a series of accomplishments for which one is forever certified as a skilled practitioner. Other important factors are living and working together

during the period of preparation and the total spirit of commitment that develops when an individual indentifies with a group that he perceives as self-enhancing. The preparation of dedicated teachers can also result from a similar demonstration of concern for the individual pre-service student's needs, his perceptions, his problems, his abilities, and his contributions (46: 1-2).

The situation where inner-city schools are seen as the last resort, must be changed before any real and lasting improvement can take place.

> What is needed is teacher, counselor, and administrator training programs that will focus on the unique problems of education in the inner-city schools. And this does not mean merely adding a course in urban sociology or some such onto existing curriculums, or a four-week workshop on the culturally deprived child, or even a full-time Teacher Corps device, helpful as these may be. In teaching, for example, it means a professional teaching specialty in the same sense that, say, teaching kindergarten as against teaching junior high school is a professional specialty.
>
> Such a program would . . . attract highly motivated . . . personnel, who are not merely interested in teaching or counseling at some amorphous level but are interested in teaching or counseling particular children in particular localities. Second, it would contribute personnel especially prepared to work in the inner-city school--and if no one is as yet certain as to the optimum nature of such preparation, we shall never find out without trying. Third, and perhaps most important, it would provide for the inner-city school educational personnel with professional esprit--the inner-city school is what they themselves had selected as a specialty, and it is for this specialty that they had prepared themselves. They would find themselves in an inner-city school--as so many educational personnel now do--as a last resort because they could not get anything "better," or because it was a point of entry into the school system while awaiting a transfer to a more desirable location, or because it was banishment to Siberia. . . . For them, the inner-city school would be precisely where they wanted to be by personal preference and by professional preparation (42: 289-90).

A clear-sighted knowledge of what life in the ghetto is really like and a common sense approach to its problems are needed.

> Faced with these special problems it is tempting and easy to be overcome with pity for a child who has never known his father, or who must run an entire household because her mother must work. But there is a danger in this. Pity often allows a teacher to excuse a child from the tasks and goals of education when the work seems too difficult. This, in both the long and short run, is a disservice to the child. If I lower my goals I am, in a sense, condemning him to a helpless ghetto existence. If I do not give him the tools of mobility, I have failed (61: 4).

> Love is not enough. We hear and read a great deal about how much the ghetto children need love. This is true. All children need love, and those few children in ghetto schools who come from homes where there is little love are especially in need. . . .
>
> But I cannot merely hand out love. If I did no more than give love to these emotionally deprived children, I would be failing them. What they need in addition to love is a very specific set of tools and instructions on how to use these tools. And if I do not provide these tools I have failed.
>
> If I do no more than love a child, comfort a child, pity a child, I have taken the path of least resistance. I have yielded to my very real feelings for these children, but I have not given them the means to break the vicious circle of their ghetto experience. The teacher must always remember that when the child leaves school he goes out into the world alone. If he has not mastered the tools of mobility he will drown in the oblivion and degradation of the ghetto (61: 5).

The building of this understanding and commitment must begin as soon as possible during the student's college years. Ideally, "the clinical experience moves the prospective teacher from the fortress of the university and from his own cultural environment to the open fields of the neighborhood in which he proposes to teach" (110: 3). At the same time, more inservice training for the teachers presently in the schools is needed.

> It is an unfortunate paradox that the very schools which can serve as the best learning laboratories for educating urban teachers are frequently lacking in the personnel to help prepare teachers needed for these schools. Since students must often be placed with less able teachers it becomes imperative that they be guaranteed the freedom to explore methods and materials which go beyond the practices of their cooperating teachers. . . . Nothing will undermine student initiative and the potential value in schools serving the disadvantaged as will direct experiences which lead them to perceive that following directions, emulating others and not "rocking the boat" are the behaviors of successful teachers. To prepare teachers to practice methods which are presently unspecified, with materials not yet developed, in schools which are still to be conceived, they must as students be offered wide latitude and encouraged to be unrestricted inquirers into the processes of teaching and learning (46: 3-4).

A. Harry Passow, in this 1963 study, *Education in Depressed Areas*, stresses the importance of people over technology. "The most significant improvements in schools in depressed areas depend on the recruitment and retention of staffs of competent, committed teachers" (95: 237). In his article, "New Teachers for New Immigrants," Harry Rivlin reminds us of something which often seems to be overlooked--that there are indeed many good and dedicated teachers already in these inner-city schools.

> Thousands of new teachers each year accept appointments to urban schools and stay. I know, moreover, that there are a great many thoroughly competent and interested teachers in our inner-city

> schools who are slandered unmercifully by those who speak of "slum schools staffed by inferior teachers." Yet, the persistent problems indicate that changes in the ways in which we prepare and assign teachers are in order (101: 709).

As already clarified, the colleges also are aware of the need for action.

> According to the results of a survey conducted recently by AACTE, more than 200 institutions are either presently conducting programs specifically designed to prepare teachers for urban schools or are planning to introduce such programs. Given such an effort, how can we develop in our prospective teachers the skills, the insight, the sense of social need, and the self-confidence that are essential for successful teaching in urban schools (101: 711)?

The great debate still centers on the "how" rather than on the "what" or the "why," and there is still little agreement on what methods will lead to a successful result.

> Our major task will be to find some way to indicate the professional rewards in the culturally different situation and to base instruction and experience in the undergraduate years on the realities of these situations. Unless this is done, we can look forward to a limited number of teachers, both prospective and regular, who will actively seek the kinds of challenge in these schools (48: 257).

It does seem clear that one essential is actual physical involvement in the ghetto situation over a fairly extended period.

> Reading about the characteristics of disadvantaged youth, their views of the world, and listening to the reports or panel discussions of means to reach the urban center child will leave little more than the short-lived emotional surge of the moment.
>
> Reading about the problems of suburban youth experimenting with LSD, the inner city matriarchal society, or the individualizing of assignments via dial select systems of instructional materials centers is quite different from face-to-face interaction with the youth, the parents, the community leaders, and the manipulation of the hardware and the software with the learners, based upon the teacher's insights about the city.
>
> An antiseptic dip into the metropolitan school for a few hours each day for six or seven weeks seems only to reinforce the image the inner city school has, or at best, leaves the pre-service "teacher" with the feeling that he had done well to serve his time.
>
> A similar sojourn in a pleasant suburban school may convey the impression that all is well and that the only challenge is developing means of exposing this group to more knowledge (94: 3).

The involvement must be reinforced in such a way that it leads to an increase of understanding and not to a deepening of prejudice.

> Complaints that some teachers in the inner city are strongly prejudiced, and the very rapid turnover rate of new teachers, reaching fifty percent in some city school systems, clearly reveals that contact alone is insufficient to ensure positive attitudes toward inner city teaching. It follows that simply exposing the student teachers to inner city classrooms as part of their training will also be insufficient (73: 1).

> Teachers who become more familiar with diverse cultural patterns, however, do not necessarily develop increased respect for their disadvantaged students. What seems to be needed on the part of many teachers is increased appreciation of the disadvantaged as individuals, albeit individuals in a particular cultural setting. So far there appears to be little research in this direction (131: 48).

The physical, emotional, and moral problems of the ghetto cannot be used as an alibi for the failure of the schools. Those teachers who do succeed are proof that the situation is not hopeless.

> We have ascribed the causes for our failures in urban areas to the environmental circumstances and the life style of the children, never realizing or accepting the fact that it was the school's responsibility for reflecting the child's culture and for developing a program around whatever characteristics exist in the culture of a particular school population (110: 4).

> The oppressed groups in our urban communities are well aware of the realities of our society; consequently they will only accept those people into their schools who no longer project the mythologies of the American dream as the ideal life for the disenfranchised majority in our urban areas (110: 15).

Although colleges like Coppin have found that many teachers who have come from disadvantaged ghetto backgrounds show little enthusiasm for returning there to work; rather preferring to move on to the more comfortable situations, there is a great deal to be said in favor of encouraging more minority group teachers to work in the inner city. They, more than anyone else, can relate to the children and give them tangible evidence of the beliefs and hopes which they are trying to instil. They start with a built-in advantage.

> Black teachers tend to perceive their black children as happy, energetic, and fun-loving; while white teachers were more likely to see the same children as talkative, lazy, and rebellious. . . . Black teachers were dissatisfied with large classes, poor equipment, inadequate supplies, and a lack of proper curriculum. On the other hand, white teachers emphasized the lack of concern by parents for their children's education, poor motivation, and discipline problems as the essential causes of their dissatisfaction. . . . Black teachers were basically satisfied with their jobs. . . . White teachers, on the other hand, were basically dissatisfied with their jobs. . . . The extremely interesting, although completely inaccurate, judgment of the white teachers is that black parents are not concerned about the educational

development of their children. It would be very difficult to suggest a perception which would be more inaccurate. The one common goal of all black parents is that their children get a "good education" (110: 11-12).

But whatever the teacher's race or cultural background, an open-minded acceptance of other ways of life must be developed.

> Urban teacher-preparatory models can no longer afford to begin to design programs which arrogantly overlook the various cultures of the urban community. They can no longer ignore the fact a variety of legitimate cultures, often differing widely from the prospective teacher's own, exist in our urban society (110: 3).

> The significant aspect of this total situation is that these culture conflicts must be experienced by prospective teachers and resolved PRIOR to their entering the setting as a full-time practitioner of the profession (110: 5).

CONCLUSION

Even in the preparation of a selected annotated bibliography, the compiler's personal bias, though not necessarily apparent, is operating in the selection of items and in the wording of the annotations. In a paper like this any personal commitment plays a much greater and more obvious role, because it influences not only the documents chosen for review but also the quotations selected and the conclusions drawn from the materials. This will have become obvious to the reader in the preceding sections, in the way in which certain points have been repeated, often from a number of different sources. This repetition was completely intentional and based on the classic educational precept that the best way to drive a point home is to repeat it in a number of different ways. The sheer diversity of the authorities quoted will, it is hoped, give added weight to the statements.

While I have made every attempt to be as objective as possible and, in particular, to avoid the suggestion that a document recommends one course of action when the author was, in fact, intending something different, this concluding section, in drawing together the impressions left by a study of the documents, must inevitably reflect my own beliefs and prejudices. With this caveat, I can only refer those who disagree with my conclusions to the authorities already quoted and use as my support at this point two books which perhaps add more than any others in recent years to the understanding of the problems which face all teachers--*Crisis in the Classroom* and *Teachers for the Real World*, both of which deserve to be read by everyone interested in education.

Crisis in the Classroom covers the whole field of American education and also takes a long and affectionate look at the informal English classrooms in which the author sees the best hope for the future (109). Although not primarily concerned with the education of the disadvantaged, Silberman does not ignore this aspect.

> Prejudice is not the only problem; expectations can be lowered by empathy as well as by distaste. Indeed, one has the uneasy feeling that many of the books, courses, and conferences designed to sensitize teachers and administrators to the problems of the "disadvantaged" have backfired. By learning why black (or Puerto Rican, Mexican American or Indian American) youngsters fail through no fault of their own, teachers learn to understand and to sympathize with failure--and thereby to expect it (109: 86).

Teachers for the Real World was a product of the NDEA National Institute for Advanced Study in Teaching Disadvantaged Youth (111). The author states in his preface:

> This is a time for both immediate action and long-range educational planning. It is a time for radical reforms in teacher education as well as in all other educational programs. . . . The reader will find very little discussion of issues and doctrines. Instead, he will find the outlines of a plan of teacher education ranging from the teacher aide to the beginning teacher. The plan is based largely on what is known about training, about the uses of theory, about teaching, and about social realities.
>
> There is little in this essay that can be called new. Most of the facts and ideas in it are known by those who are familiar with the literature. Many elements of the plan are found in current programs. What is new, if any novelty can be rightly claimed, is the outline of a systematic and basic plan of teacher education drawn in practical terms. If this essay stimulates others to think in comprehensive terms about the education of the nation's teachers, if it helps to lift teacher education out of the provincialism into which it has drifted and to move it to a sphere commensurte with the demands of these times, it will have served its purpose (111: ix-x).

In an analysis of the book, Edmund Short identifies some of the realities of teacher training and social problems as they relate to teacher education:

1. Social Realities
   (a) Pupils generally referred to as disadvantaged do not have an inferior culture, nor are they socialized in an inferior manner by inadequate parents, nor have they undergone a stifling of cognitive stimulation in their pre-school years, nor do they possess inferior intellectual endowment.
   (b) Teachers often participate in perpetuating these inappropriate social values by the kinds of interpretations of children's behavior they make and the attitudes they display toward them.
   (c) The school system itself accentuates the learning problems of the deprived child.
   (d) About twelve percent of all teachers leave the schools at the end of each school year.
   (e) Persons employed in elementary and secondary school settings tend to be loyal first to their individual school or system.

2. Teacher Training
   (a) Teachers require no special training to teach underprivileged children since these children learn in the same way as other children.
   (b) All too generally teacher training is characterized by its remoteness from the realities of classroom practice, by its condoning of anti-intellectualism of teachers, by its attempt to "tool up" everyone to fulfill a teaching role requiring a very wide range of skills and competencies.
   (c) Teacher trainees who are well-prepared to deal with children of varying backgrounds and circumstances may still be baffled by problems in an integrated school that stem from racism.
   (d) The teacher trainee's investment in his preparation is often not sufficiently different from that of a liberal arts student, in terms of courses, time, and money, to deter him from changing to another vocation or to discourage him from even entering upon teacher training.
   (e) Teachers who admit to being reluctant to teach in disadvantaged areas indicate that they are not sufficiently trained to do the job.
   (f) Not just anyone who looks at teaching behavior can tell what is going on and what is effective or ineffective about it.
   (g) Putting prospective teachers in field experiences where they face reality does not necessarily assist them to develop the ability to interpret objectively the situation or to master the skills needed to cope with it.
   (h) Not only considerable practice but also the trainee's awareness of consequences of his own behavior is necessary if he is to improve his skill.
   (i) When personality is relied upon as a substitute for training, it becomes a stumbling block to the development of programs of teacher preparation.
   (j) The subject matter needed to teach a child of suburbia is essentially the same as that required to teach the ghetto child.
   (k) Teacher training institutions have failed to devise programs of perennial education that in fact result in improvement in teaching performance (107).

As a final summation, most important is the teacher's motivation and attitude. If he really wants to teach in the inner city for the right reasons, and if he believes that there is no reason why these children should not learn, he will succeed, provided that he has received normal and adequate training in his subject fields and in educational methodology. But if he is there because nothing better was available, or through a misguided missionary zeal to help the "neglected poor," or because he has a feeling of guilt about the neglect on the part of past generations, he will not succeed, no matter how many new teaching aids are available to help him.

What is needed are teachers who have been shown from the very beginning of their college education the realities of the inner city. Then those with a real commitment will go into the schools knowing what to expect. Their sociological background will have prepared them to

deal with the situation. They will receive support from the school board and the school administration so that they will not meet discouragement from above in their daily work. And they will have not only a feeling of love and sympathy for the children they will teach, but a real respect for their culture and for them as worthwhile individuals.

It is not an easy prescription, but it is an inspiring one, and with honesty, maturity, understanding, and compassion on the part of the teachers and the school administrators, it may yet be achieved.

Bibliography

1. American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. Three Conferences: Urbanization, Work and Education; Youth in a Changing Society; Teacher Education in a New Context. Washington, D.C.: the Association, November 1968. 38p.
   ED 033 893. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

   The Madison Conference on Teacher Education in a New Context, which is most relevant to this paper, examined experimental urban programs, teachers and teacher behavior in urban schools, administrative behavior, and effective programs for teachers.

2. Amershek, Kathleen, and Chandler Barbour. "Innovative Ideas in Student Teaching." College Park: University of Maryland, College of Education, October 1968. 48p.
   ED 025 488. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

   A collection of reports on 28 innovative programs for student teachers and inservice teacher training.

3. Anderson, James G. Teachers of Minority Groups: The Origins of Their Attitudes and Instructional Practices. Las Cruces: New Mexico University, January 1969. 72p.
   ED 026 192. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

   A study was undertaken to explore the origins of attitudes and instructional practices among teachers of Mexican-American children. The findings suggest that the origins of teacher attitudes toward disadvantaged minority students may lie in the type of professional training they receive.

4. Baltimore City Public Schools. Project MISSION. A Cooperative Teacher Training Program for Preparing Teachers for Assignments in Inner City Schools. Baltimore, Md.: the Schools, June 1965. 121p.
   Local collection of the Clearinghouse.

   This is the description of a program begun by three state colleges in cooperation with the public school system and designed to prepare teachers for inner city schools.

5. Bauch, Jerold P. Community Participation in Teacher Education: Teacher Corps and the Model Programs. CEM Bulletin 70-4. Athens: University of Georgia, College of Education, July 1970. 6p.
   ED 042 700. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

   This document proposes close cooperation between those concerned with implementing the models and the Teacher Corps in bringing about community involvement during the planning stages of teacher education programs.

6. Bentley, Ralph R. "Changing Teacher Morale: An Experiment in Feedback of Identified Problems of Teachers and Principals." Final Report. Lafayette, Ind.: Purdue University, Division of Education, October 1967. 84p.

ED 021 779. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

This 2-year study attempted to determine whether feedback to teachers and principals about problems and tensions existing in their schools can be effective in changing morale.

7. Bixler, James E. STEP-TTT. Final Report, September 1, 1969 to August 31, 1970. San Francisco: San Francisco Unified School District, 1970. 139p.
ED 046 862. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$6.58.

This report is concerned with the program operated by the San Francisco State College and the San Francisco Unified School District which included the education of trainers of teacher trainers.

8. Bouchard, John B., and Ronald E. Hull. A Pilot Study of Problems and Practices in the Induction of Beginning Teachers. Fredonia: State University of New York, January 1970. 43p.
ED 040 157. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

The document describes a pilot study which was designed to test the practicality of gathering data to provide information on induction problems and practices in the Cattaraugus-Chautauqua County area of New York.

9. Broadbent, Frank W., and Donald R. Cruickshank. "The Identification and Analysis of Problems of First Year Teachers" [part of a report of the sixth annual Convocation on Educational Research, October 18-19, 1965]. 4p.
ED 013 786. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

Research was carried out to determine beginning teachers' perceptions of their teaching problems, and the six major categories were found to be: methods, evaluation of students, discipline, parent relations, routines and materials, and personal (mostly lack of self confidence).

10. Bush, Robert N. "The Formative Years," The Real World of the Beginning Teacher. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, 1966. pp. 1-14.
ED 030 616. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-Not available.

The author discusses the formative years of teaching at three points--the point of entry, the period of initial preparation, and the first few years of practice.

11. ---. "The Status of the Career Teacher: Its Effect Upon the Teacher Dropout Problem," The Teacher Dropout, edited by T. M. Stinnett. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, 1970. pp. 111-35.
ED 040 972. Not available from EDRS.

This paper explores the assumption that education is better in a school with a permanent teaching staff and the influence of teacher status on the teacher dropout rate.

12. Cahn, Meyer M. "A Letter to a Student Teacher." San Francisco: San Francisco State College, May 7, 1968. 11p.
ED 026 412. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

A letter stresses the need for breaking down the "walls" which separate the teacher from the students and the students from each other and also the need for recognizing the close relationship between the world of the classroom and the outside world of social change and unrest.

13. Chesler, Mark A. "Teacher Training Designs for Improving Instruction in Interracial Classrooms." Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, Center for Research on Utilization of Scientific Knowledge, November 1967. 24p.
ED 022 730. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

The document discusses programs focused on social problems of desegregated classrooms and identifies targets on which change agents should focus.

14. City University of New York, Queens College. The Preparation of Teachers for Schools in Culturally Deprived Neighborhoods. [The BRIDGE Project]. Flushing: the College, 1965. 400p.
Local collection of the Clearinghouse.

This is a very detailed account of the program, discussing its problems, purposes, and procedures, with conclusions and recommendations.

15. Claye, Clifton M. "Preparing Teachers for the Inner City." Field report prepared for Central State College and University Professional Education Seminar, November 1968, Cedar Falls, Iowa. 6p.
ED 024 638. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

A brief account describes the frustrations faced by a predominantly black college in Texas in its efforts to improve its teacher preparation program and motivate teachers to become more involved with the problems of their students.

16. Clements, H. Millard. "Urban Schooling: A Case of Chronic Malpractice," Three Conferences: Urbanization, Work and Education; Youth in a Changing Society; Teacher Education in a New Context. Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, November 1968. pp. 8-15.
ED 033 893. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

The author considers some of the current assumptions that ghetto children are inherently inferior and offers in opposition five assumptions which place the blame on the school system.

17. Clothier, Grant, and James H. Lawson. Innovation in the Inner City. Kansas City, Mo.: Mid-Continent Regional Education Laboratory, 1969. 68p.
ED 027 265. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

This is the description of a program designed to improve urban teaching by helping the teacher to understand his pupils' attitudes, environment, and culture.

18. ---, and Irving Kartus. Now I Have Known Me. Kansas City, Mo.: Mid-Continent Regional Educational Laboratory, Spring 1970. 80p.
Local collection of the Clearinghouse.

This is the fourth in a series of monographs about the Cooperative Urban Teacher Education (CUTE) program. It deals with the mental health aspects of the program.

19. ---, and James Swick. Cooperation: A Key to Urban Teacher Education. Kansas City, Mo.: Mid-Continent Regional Educational Laboratory, June 1969. 46p.
ED 032 255. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

This is one of four documents describing a cooperative program involving 23 Midwest liberal arts colleges and four public and two parochial school systems in the preparation of teachers for inner-city schools.

20. ---, ed. Curriculum Guidelines for Inner-City Teacher Education. Kansas City, Mo.: Mid-Continent Regional Educational Laboratory, October 1969. 152p.
ED 034 720. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$6.58.

The curriculum outlined here was developed as part of the Cooperative Urban Teacher Education Program and has been used with preservice elementary and secondary teachers for more than two years.

21. Committee for Economic Development, Research and Policy Committee. Innovation in Education: New Directions for the American School. A Statement on National Policy. New York: the Committee, July 1968. 86p.
ED 022 376. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

The report recommends a national Commission on Research, Innovation, and Evaluation in Education to encourage openness to change and to establish goals.

22. Consolidated School District Number Two, "[Description of NCTEPS Demonstration Center]" Rayton, Mo.: the District, 1968. 12p.
Local collection of the Clearinghouse.

This paper describes a program initiated in 1961 to aid approximately 50 teachers in elementary schools with three helping teachers who offer demonstration lessons and introduce new materials.

23. Corey, Arthur F. "Overview of Factors Affecting the Holding Power of the Teaching Profession," The Teacher Dropout, edited by T. M. Stinnett. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, 1970. pp. 1-22.
ED 040 972. Not available from EDRS.

This paper delineates the major reasons why teachers leave the profession, with a brief discussion of the nature of the system, the decision-making apparatus, teacher work load, the status of the teacher, personnel procedures, and programs of teacher preparation.

24. Covello, Leonard. The Teacher in the Urban Community [The Heart Is the Teacher]. Totowa, N.J.: Littlefield, Adams and Co., 1970. 276p.
Publisher's Price: $2.25.
Local collection of the Clearinghouse.

This autobiography describes the experiences of an Italian immigrant who was for 23 years the principal of Benjamin Franklin High School in East Harlem and whose whole life has been dedicated to inner-city education.

25. Cruickshank, Donald R., and Frank W. Broadbent. The Simulation and Analysis of Problems of Beginning Teachers. Brockport: New York State University, 1968. 246p.
ED 024 637. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$9.87.

A study was conducted to determine the effectiveness of simulation for presenting critical teaching problems to student teachers.

26. ---, and James Leonard. The Identification and Analysis of Perceived Problems of Teachers in Inner-City Schools. Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1967. 11p.
ED 026 335. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

The study describes research undertaken to determine the type and extent of problems perceived by teachers in inner-city schools.

27. ---, and others. "Perceived Problems of Teachers in Schools Serving Rural Disadvantaged Populations and Their Comparison with Problems Reported by Inner-City Teachers." Knoxville: University of Tennessee, College of Education [1968]. 35p.
ED 027 986. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

Lists are provided of problems common to both groups and of problems identified as being peculiar to urban or rural teaching.

28. Davies, Don. "The 'Relevance' of Accountability." Address to Deans' Conference on Teacher Education, December 4, 1969. Minneapolis. 15p.
ED 036 479. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

The paper outlines the intentions of the Education Professions Development Act which include preparing personnel to work with the disadvantaged and handicapped; changing the system of preparing personnel; and encouraging partnerships between the colleges and universities, the state and local school systems, and the community.

29. Decker, Sunny. An Empty Spoon. New York: Harper and Row, 1969. 115p.
Publisher's Price: $4.95.

This book describes the experiences of a newly-graduated, middle-class teacher in two years at a Philadelphia ghetto high school.

30. Dooley, Harold R. "A Program To Strengthen the Skills, Understandings, and Professional Commitment of New Teachers To Work with Poverty Stricken Mexican-American Pupils in South Texas Schools." Edinburg, Tex.: Education Service Center (Region One), 1970. 163p.

ED 045 564. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; $6.58.

A program is described which was designed to assist the orientation of new teachers, develop their sense of job gratification, and encourage them to continue to teach in Rio Grande border school systems.

31. Edelfelt, Roy A. "The Preparation of Teachers: Preservice and Inservice," The Teacher Dropout, edited by T. M. Stinnett. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, 1970. pp. 95-109.
ED 040 972. Not available from EDRS.

This paper discusses the changes which are needed in the concept of how, when, and where teachers are prepared, if the number of dropouts is to be reduced.

32. Educational Research Services. "Project Mission, Summer 1968, and School Year 1968-69 of the Baltimore City Public Schools. Evaluation of ESEA Title I Project for Fiscal Year 1969." White Plains, N.Y.: the Services, June 1969. 93p.
ED 036 588. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

A project which offered graduate and undergraduate students from three Maryland state colleges special training for teaching in Baltimore's inner-city schools is evaluated.

33. Edwards, Suzee. "BYU's Answer to Teacher Shock," New Teachers: New Education. Student Impact Occasional Paper. Washington, D.C.: Student National Education Association, May 1970. pp. 2-3.
ED 042 733. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-Not available.

This article describes the intern program for elementary teachers at Brigham Young University.

34. Epstein, Jack. Project Mission: A Progress Report, July 1, 1966-June 30, 1967. Baltimore: Baltimore City Public Schools [1968]. 195p.
Local collection of the Clearinghouse.

This report on the second year of Project Mission includes details of its operation, as well as of the innovative and professional programs, with evaluations and recommendations.

35. Erickson, Edsel L., and others. Teacher Mobility, Teacher Dropout and the Expectations of Family and Friends. Kalamazoo: Western Michigan University, Center for Sociological Research, March 1968. 71p.
ED 021 785. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

This pilot study was designed to discover the effects of the expectations of family and friends on the teacher's career expectations.

36. Fader, Daniel N., and Elton B. McNeil. Hooked on Books: Program and Proof. New York: Berkley Publishing Corp., 1966.

A program designed to encourage reading by disadvantaged and delinquent youths by introducing them to paperbacks on topics in which they are interested is described and evaluated.

37. Flaxman, Erwin. A Selected Bibliography on Teacher Attitudes. ERIC-IRCD Urban Disadvantaged. New York: Columbia University, ERIC Clearinghouse on the Urban Disadvantaged, 1969. 23p.
ED 027 357. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

An annotated bibliography cites studies identifying the racial and social attitudes of the middle-class urban teacher and programs to change negative teacher attitudes.

38. Flynn, Freeman A. "Beginning at Hutchins Junior High," Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, 52:123-29; October 1968.
ED 024 621. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$6.58.

The principal of a junior high school in Detroit describes his experiences with the NASSP Teacher Induction Project.

39. Fox, David J., and others. Supportive Training for Inexperienced and New Teachers (STINT). Part I. New York: Center for Urban Education, September 1969. 140p.
ED 035 582. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$6.58.

This document is an evaluative description of the program conducted by the New York City Board of Education during 1968-69.

40. Frankfort, Ellen. The Classrooms of Miss Ellen Frankfort: Confessions of a Private School Teacher. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1970. Publisher's Price: $5.95.

The author describes her experiences in three private schools: the first, an all-girls Hasidic High School; the second, a small, upper middle class school for girls; and the third, a small, very progressive, coeducational school.

41. Fuchs, Estelle. Teachers Talk: Views from Inside City Schools. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday and Co., 1969. 224p. Publishers's Price: $1.45.

Excerpts from tape recorded interviews with 14 beginning teachers in slum schools provide insights into their problems and are accompanied by discussions of the relevant social science and cultural anthropological theories.

42. Getzels, J. W. "Education for the Inner City: A Practical Proposal by an Impractical Theorist." Address given at the American Association of School Administrators meeting, February 13, 1967, Atlantic City. 17p.
ED 025 451. Not available from EDRS.

The author recommends a fresh approach to the staffing of inner-city schools: using a group of school personnel working together as a team so that they might have greater impact in fostering change, rather than sending individuals into situations where they are swallowed up in an already established pattern.

43. Good, Thomas L., and others. "Listening to Teachers." Report Series, No. 34. Austin: University of Texas, October 1969. 10p.
ED 036 456. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

When 28 fifth and eighth grade teachers in six different schools were asked to describe the several children who presented their biggest problems, both elementary and secondary teachers identified more behavior problems than academic, were more concerned about the behavioral ones, and consistently attributed problems to factors other than their own classroom teaching.

44. Graham, Richard. "The Teacher Corps: One Place to Begin," Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, 52:49-61; October 1968.
ED 024 621. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$6.58.

The director of the Teacher Corps describes the objectives of the program and suggests ways in which they could be applied in teacher education generally.

45. Grant, D. R. B. TIP Report II; Beginning Teachers--Their Professional Concerns, Difficulities, and Responsibilites. Kingston, Jamaica: West Indies University, April 1969. 57p.
Local collection of the Clearinghouse.

A study was carried out in Jamaica to discover the areas of concern seen by prospective interns and beginning teachers, as well as by principals and supervisors.

46. Haberman, Martin. "The Professional Sequence for Preparing Urban Teachers" [1965]. 13p.
ED 024 644. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

This document proposes a professional sequence based on six areas of study: enthusiasm, organization, respect, standard-setting, listening, and introspecting.

47. Hart, Leslie A. The Classroom Disaster. New York: Columbia University, Teachers College Press, 1969. 354p.
Local collection of the Clearinghouse.

This book examines the American educational system and is particularly critical of the class-and-grade arrangement. The second part offers proposals for an open school system and the appendix lists a sampling of schools which are already using some of the innovations described.

48. Haubrich, Vernon F. "Teachers for Depressed Areas," Education in Depressed Areas, edited by A. Harry Passow. New York: Columbia University, Teachers College, 1963. pp. 243-61.

The author discusses the school situation in the inner city and the way in which this must effect the preparation of teachers. He discusses the program at Hunter College in some detail.

49. Heddendorf, Russell Howard. "The Student Teacher and Professional Values." Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1969. 198p.
ED 036 455. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$6.58.

The dissertation reports research which showed that while attitudes toward the professional image, methods, and skills became more positive during teacher education, attitudes toward the professional spirit were negatively influenced.

50. Heidelback, Ruth, and Margaret Lindsey. Annotated Bibliography on Laboratory Experiences and Related Activities in the Professional Education of Teachers, July 1966-June 1967. Washington, D.C.: Association for Student Teaching, a national affiliate of the National Education Association, 1968. 91p.
ED 022 723. EDRS Price: MF-$0.50; HC-Not available.

This bibliography of predominantly journal articles includes sections on interns and beginning teachers, and on teachers for urban and depressed areas.

51. Hermanowicz, Henry J. "The Pluralistic World of Beginning Teachers," The Real World of the Beginning Teacher. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, 1966. pp. 15-25.
ED 030 616. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-Not available.

This paper summarizes their 13 studies in which a sample of beginning teachers in 12 different states, from Maine to New Mexico, were interviewed to obtain insight into their problems.

52. Herndon, James. The Way It Spozed To Be. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1965. 188p. Publisher's Price: $4.95.

A record of one year in a metropolitan ghetto school is presented.

53. Hill, Russell A., and Donald M. Medley. "Change in Behaviors of First Year Intern Teachers." Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association annual meeting, February 1968, Chicago, Ill. 17p.
ED 034 724. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

This is another discussion of the intern teaching program for college graduates at Temple University, Philadelphia. See also ED 036 478.

54. Hirsch, Werner Z., and others. Inventing Education for the Future. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1967. 353p. Publisher's Price: $7.95.
ED 021 450. Not available from EDRS.

Reasons why education must change and why innovations which have been or can be used to realize necessary changes should be employed are discussed. Factors considered include social attitudes and values.

55. Hite, F. Herbert, and others. "Effects of Reduced Loads and Intensive Inservice Treatment Upon the Classroom Behavior of Beginning Elementary Teachers." Pullman: Washington State University, 1966. 141p.
ED 010 162. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$6.58.

This study was made to see whether experimental treatments involving reduced work loads and intensive inservice instruction would affect the performance and attitudes of beginning teachers.

56. Hunt, Douglas W. "Teacher Induction: An Opportunity and a Responsibility," Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, 52:13-135; October 1968.
ED 024 621. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$6.58.

The director of NASSP's teacher induction project summarizes what the project has been able to demonstrate in its short lifetime.

57. Hunter College. Project TRUE: A Final Report 1962-64. New York: the College, September 1964. 48p.
Local collection of the Clearinghouse.

This document gives a summary of the project, covering the teacher's experience and training activities and an evaluation of the foundations course.

58. Jablonsky, Adelaide, and others. Imperatives for Change. Proceedings of the New York State Education Conference on College and University Programs for Teachers of the Disadvantaged. New York: Yeshiva University, 1967. 128p.
ED 018 454. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$6.58.

The document includes papers on four major areas: (a) attitudes and behavior, (b) people, (c) techniques, and (d) special curriculum aspects.

59. Jersild, Arthur T. "Behold the Beginner," The Real World of the Beginning Teacher, 43:53; 1966.
ED 030 616. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-Not available.

The author attempts to describe the feelings and reactions of the beginning teacher, from his own vantage point as professor of education and psychology at Teachers College, Columbia University.

60. Johnson, Mel. A Summative Report of Teacher In-Service Training Emphasizing the Affective Dimension. Arlington Heights, Ill.: Elk Grove Training and Development Center, June 1969. 47p.
ED 034 747. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

This is the description of a program designed to encourage teacher to regard their students as individuals, and to look at and evaluate their own classroom behavior.

61. Jordan, Susan B. "Teaching in the Inner-City School: What It's Really Like" [Miscellaneous Materials for Student and Beginning Teacher in the Inner City]. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, 1969.
Local collection of the Clearinghouse.

A third grade teacher in a Brooklyn school describes her own, essentially successful, experiences. The topics discussed include knowing the neighborhood, dealing with children's anger, giving meaning to school, coping with discipline problems, and dealing with parents.

62. Kaufman, Bel. Up the Down Staircase. New York: Prentice Hall, 1964.

Personal experiences of a beginning teacher in an inner-city school are given.

63. Kauss, Theodore. "Student Teaching Navajo Style," New Teachers: New Education. Washington, D.C.: Student National Education Association, May 1970. pp. 13-14.
ED 042 733. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-Not available.

The article describes the experiences of five students from Northwestern University whose student teaching experience involved living on a Navajo reservation in Arizona.

64. Kennedy, V. J., and Robert E. Roush, eds. Teacher Corps: A New Dimension in Education. Houston, Tex.: University of Houston, Bureau of Educational Research and Service, 1969. 236p. Publisher's Price: $3.75.
ED 032 256. Not available from EDRS.

This is a book of 46 selected readings from a variety of sources. It includes descriptions of the main program and of individual segments, and also details some of the problems faced.

65. Kenney, Helen J. Defining Central Problems and Questions in Preparing Teachers of Disadvantaged Youth. Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1968. 15p.
ED 028 137. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

This publication reports on NDEA National Institute task force concerned with preparing teachers for the disadvantaged.

66. ---, and others. Teacher Education: The Young Teacher's View. Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, July 1968. 15p.
ED 026 332. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

This publication summarizes the proceedings and outcomes of four conferences, each having the same purposes--to identify, clarify, and specify the issues relevant to preparing teachers of disadvantaged youth.

67. Koenigsberg, Shelly P., ed. Improving Teacher Education for Disadvantaged Youth: What University Professors Can Learn from Classroom Teachers. Conference Proceedings, May 15-17, 1966. Project Beacon. New York: Yeshiva University, Ferkauf Graduate School of Humanities and Social Sciences, 1966. 173p.
ED 035 711. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$6.58.

This document reports on classroom teachers and university professors relating to the problems of teaching disadvantaged students.

68. Kozol, Jonathan. Death at an Early Age: The Destruction of the Hearts and Minds of Negro Children in the Boston Public Schools. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1967.
ED 023 766. Not available from EDRS.

The author describes his experiences as a teacher in a predominantly Negro elementary school in Boston and details specific instances of the bigoted attitudes of teachers and other authorities which contribute to the students' sense of inferiority.

69. Kvaraceus, William C. Thirteen Professors' Project: Episodes in Positive Teaching. Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, December 1968. 27p.
ED 027 269. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

Thirteen professors from New England colleges and universities report on their experiences teaching disadvantaged students in elementary and secondary schools and discuss the insights they gained concerning needed changes in teacher education.

70. Lambert, Sam M. "Current Problems Within the Teaching Profession." November 1967. 17p.
ED 018 847. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

The executive secretary of the NEA defined major factors causing unrest among teachers in American schools as including rapidly increasing school enrollment, consequent social distance between the classroom teacher and the school administrator, incrasing professionalism of male teachers, inadequate compensation both economically and socially, growing bureaucracy, and overcentralization.

71. Larson, Richard. "Preparing Teachers of the Disadvantaged: A Practitioner's Prespective," Three Conferences: Urbanization, Work and Education; Youth in a Changing Society; Teacher Education in a New Context. Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, November 1968. pp. 15-19.
ED 033 893. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29

The author speaks from a deliberately hypercritical point of view concerning the education of teachers of the disadvantaged, and then offers some suggestions for improvement.

72. Levan, Frederick D. "Teaching Teachers To Teach the Disadvantaged: Study of Attitude Change." Washington, D.C.: Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, Division of Compensatory Education, February 1968. 64p.
ED 025 452. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

The document describes an effectiveness evaluation designed to determine the differences between teachers who did and did not have Title I training. The evaluation showed that such training did affect attitudinal differences in teachers of the disadvantaged in Arizona, California, Nevada, and New Mexico.

73. Levine, Murray, and M. George Feeney. "The Effect of Practice Teaching in Inner City Schools on Attitudes Toward Teaching in Inner City Schools." Buffalo: State University of New York, 1969. 18p.
ED 035 577. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

This paper describes a study which was conducted to obtain data on the reactions of student teachers to contact with urban, black pupils.

74. Long Island University. "The Real World of Inner City Teaching." Brookville, N.Y.: the University, 1970. 13p.
Local collection of the Clearinghouse.

The document describes a teacher intern program designed to operate with existing budgetary structures and to modify teaching practice in inner-city schools.

75. Lortie, Dan C. "Teacher Socialization: the Robinson Crusoe Model," The Real World of the Beginning Teacher, 54:66; 1966.
ED 030 616. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-Not available.

The author discusses the problems of the beginning teacher from the point of view of sociological research, based on tape recorded interviews, questionnaires, and a historical review of the development of professional education.

76. Maddox, Kathryn. "Town-Gown Cooperation," New Teachers: New Education. Washington, D.C.: Student National Education Association, May 1970. pp. 22-23.
ED 042 733. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-Not available.

This article contains a brief description of the consortium of West Virginia colleges, and the way in which this has made innovative student teaching experiences possible.

77. Mason, Ward S. The Beginning Teacher: Status and Career Orientations. Final Report on the Survey of New Teachers in the Public Schools 1956-57. Circular No. 644. Washington, D.C.: Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, 1961. 196p.

This study was undertaken in 1957 to determine the social, professional, and economic status of the beginning teacher and to obtain some insight into their aspirations, values, and attitudes concerning teaching.

78. McFadden, Dennis N. Training Teachers for the Inner City. Columbus, Ohio: Battelle Memorial Institute, 1970. 36p.
Local collection of the Clearinghouse.

This document describes a proposal to establish a comprehensive set of guidelines for the development of inservice training programs to be used by large metropolitan school districts to increase the effectiveness of inner-city teachers.

79. McNeil, John D. "Initial Teaching in Poverty Versus Affluent Schools: Effect upon Teacher Stress, Attitudes and Career Choices." Los Angeles: University of California, 1968. 7p.
ED 024 649. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

A study was conducted by UCLA to determine whether assignment to a poverty school as opposed to an affluent school would effect differences in terms of teacher stress, attitude, and willingness to accept a permanent teaching position in a poverty school.

80. Moore, G. Alexander, Jr. Urban School Days. New York: City University of New York, Hunter College, Project TRUE, 1964. 280p.
Local collection of the Clearinghouse.

This is a book of selected observations of three elementary schools in the lower-income areas of a large city, and is intended to reduce the amount of culture shock experienced by beginning teachers.

81. Morris, Jean. "Diary of a Beginning Teacher," Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, 52:6-22; October 1968.
ED 024 621. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$6.58.

A beginning teacher of 7th grade history records her classroom experiences in Richmond, Va.

82. Morrison, Donald W. "The Cleveland-Miami Inner-City Project." Oxford, Ohio: Miami University, School of Education, 1968. 28p.
ED 029 847. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

The document describes changes in the attitudes of prospective teachers following an inner-city field experience program and includes extensive quotations.

83. Myers, Charles L. A Twelve Year Study of Teacher Success and Related Characteristics. Progress Report, 1960-1965. Long Beach: California State College, 1967. 52p.
ED 037 378. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

A study designed to investigate the success of graduates in elementary education at California State College over a 12-year period shows that the major causes of unsuccessful teachers are lack of classroom organization and lack of pupil response and responsibility.

84. National Association of Secondary Schools Principals. Welcome to Teaching! Project on the Education of Beginning Teachers. Washington, D.C.: the Association, 1969. 16p.
ED 033 074. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-Not available.

Brief, basic advice is given on summer preparation, orientation, organization of the first and second semesters, and discipline problems.

85. ---. Guidelines for Cooperating Teachers. Project on the Induction of Beginning Teachers. Washington, D.C.: the Association, 1969. 17p.
ED 033 073. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-Not available.

This booklet contains practical suggestions on how cooperating teachers should work with beginning teachers in a four-phase induction program.

86. ---. "The Beginning Teacher" [entire issue], Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, 52:1-163; October 1968.
ED 024 621. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$6.58.

This issue of the Bulletin consists of reports on various aspects of the NASSP Project on the induction of beginning teachers, designed to discover ways of improving the critical first years and reducing the teacher dropout rate.

87. ---. Guidelines for Principals. Washington, D.C.: the Association, 1969. 10p.
ED 033 075. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-Not available.

This booklet outlines suggested procedures for a four-phase induction program for beginning teachers, with emphasis on the principal's responsibilities.

88. National Education Association, National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards. Remaking the World of the Career Teacher. Washington, D.C.: the Commission, 1966. 214p.
ED 031 419. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$9.87.

This book contains material presented at eight regional conferences on the changes needed in the pattern and concepts of career development for teachers.

89. ---. The Real World of the Beginning Teacher. Washington, D.C.: the Commission, 1966. 90p.
ED 030 616. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-Not available.

Problems and goals of beginning teachers are the subjects of these speeches presented by both experienced and beginning teachers.

90. New York University. "Project APEX, A Program for Excellence in Urban Teacher Education." New York: the University, 1965. 9p.
ED 019 309. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

This document briefly outlines the plans for a New York project to train 60 Negro, Puerto Rican, and white disadvantaged high school graduates to teach in slum schools.

91. Oregon State University. "Second Cycle Teacher Corps Program." Final Program Report. Corvallis: the University, October 1969. 28p.
ED 042 704. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

The introductory section of this report contains a brief description of the program, and other sections described innovations which have taken place in the university program, program evaluation, recommendations for future cycles, and reports from each of the cooperating school districts.

92. Ornstein, Allan C. "Teaching the Disadvantaged" [Miscellaneous Materials for Student and Beginning Teacher in the Inner City]. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, 1969.
Local collection of the Clearinghouse.

This article offers practical advice and suggestions, based on the author's experience, grouped under three headings: (a) the attitude of the teacher

toward his students and profession; (b) classroom management, with some rules and routines; and (c) preventive discipline.

93. ---. "Methods for Conducting Teacher Behavior Research: With Implications for Teachers of the Disadvantaged." Paper based on unpublished doctoral dissertation. 35p.
ED 046 803. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

The author considers the current status of research on teacher behavior and the difficulties of identifying and measuring it. He makes 27 recommendations for future research.

94. Pappanikou, A. J., and Thelbert L. Drake. "Educating 'Teachers' for the City." Storrs: University of Connecticut, School of Education, 1968. 19p.
ED 024 661. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

A program to prepare preservice elementary school teachers at the University of Connecticut to work with urban youth is proposed.

95. Passow, A. Harry, ed. Education in Depressed Areas. New York: Columbia University, Teachers College, 1963. 359p.

This book contains paper presented at a conference held at Columbia University in 1962 to consider whether public schools have a special responsibility towards children of the ghetto, and to develop guiding principles for program planners.

96. Phi Delta Kappa, Gateway East Field Chapter. "Problems of Beginning Teachers as Found in: Bond, Calhoun, Greene, Jersey, Macoupin, Madison, Randolph, and St. Clair Counties in Illinois." Edwardsville, Ill.: the Chapter, May 1968. 16p.
Local collection of the Clearinghouse.

A study was carried out with first and second year teachers to discover background data, their relationships with other teachers, and students and administrators, and the community.

97. Ravitz, Mel. "The Role of the School in the Urban Setting," Education in Depressed Areas, edited by A. Harry Passow. New York: Columbia University, Teachers College, 1963. pp. 6-23.

The author provides a general survey of urban problems, stressing the need to give disadvantaged students middle-class values.

98. Readling, John J., and Vincent I. Barone. "The Oswego Plan for Team Supervision of Beginning Teachers." Oswego: State University of New York, October 1967. 21p.
ED 029 850. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

This is the description of an experimental program of mutual assistance in which four or five beginning teachers are teamed with an experienced teacher to improve instruction and the teaching competencies of the team members.

99. Reddick, L. D. To Improve Teachers for Inner City Schools. Final Report. Baltimore, Md.: Coppin State College, May 1967. 161p.
ED 013 282. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$6.58.

This is the report on an undergraduate program designed to prepare volunteer students to teach in inner-city elementary schools.

100. Rehage, Kenneth J. "Induction: When Student Becomes Teacher," Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, 52:144-55; October 1968.
ED 024 621. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$6.58.

The author, who is a professor of education at the University of Chicago considers some of the problems faced by the beginning teacher, including professional relations, adjusting to reality, and respecting individuality.

101. Rivlin, Harry N. "New Teachers for New Immigrants," Teachers College Record, 707-718; May 1965.
Local collection of the Clearinghouse.

Our present immigrants (or in-migrants) are in transition from one subculture to a potentially more fulfilling one. To serve them our schools must provide better teachers. Dr. Rivlin suggests a plan for preparing "new" teachers, involving a longer and more intimate collaboration between colleges and school systems, and the payment of students for professional services rendered in the schools.

102. Rubeck, Robert F., and others. A Guide for Urban-Teacher Development. Final Report. Columbus, Ohio: Battelle Memorial Institute, November 1970. 232p.
ED 046 886. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$9.87.

This guide is intended to serve the information needs of the teacher educator, and to enable him to measure his local conditions in order to design an appropriate teacher-education program.

103. Rubin, Louis J. "A Study on the Continuing Education of Teachers." Santa Barbara: University of California, 1969. 31p.
ED 036 487. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

This report describes a project conducted by the Center for Coordinated Education, which attempted to train more than 500 inservice teachers to teach selected cognitive skills to some 15,000 students in grades 1 through 10.

104. Sandefur, J. T., and others. "Teaching Experience as a Modifier of Teaching Behavior." Final Report. Emporia: Kansas State Teachers College, September 30, 1969. 52p.
ED 035 598. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

Research to determine the extent to which teaching experience modified the behavior of a selected group of 50 first year secondary teachers is described.

105. San Francisco State College, Education Department. STEP Teacher Education Project. San Francisco, Calif.: the Department, 1968. 309p.
ED 027 247. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$13.16.

This is a detailed description of the program started in 1966 in the Sausalito School District to provide a teacher education program which would prepare candidates for the teaching of educationally deprived children.

106. Seymour, Howard C., and others. "What Administrators Say About Beginners," Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, 52:28-42; October 1968.
ED 024 621. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$6.58.

A group of administrators, all from the same school system, discuss the beginning teachers they have worked with and make comments and recommendations suggested by their experiences.

107. Short, Edmund C. "An Analysis of Teachers for the Real World." Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, December 1969. 36p.
ED 046 867. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

This survey of the 1968 publication, Teachers for the Real World, considers the knowledge bases of teacher education, analyxes the proposals in detail, and discusses their qualitative aspects.

108. Short, Evelyn H. "Teacher Corps at New Mexico State University." Final Narrative Report: Cycle II. Santa Fe: New Mexico State University, July 1969. 12p.
ED 042 702. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

The goals of the 2-year program are described, the preservice and inservice training is outlined and some of the effects on the university and the cooperating schools are described.

109. Silberman, Charles E. Crisis in the Classoom: The Remaking of American Education. New York: Random House, 1970. 552p. Publisher's Price: $10.00.

This book, which is the result of a three-and-a half year study commissioned by the Carnegie Corporation, examines the problems facing all levels of education in America and makes proposals for their solution.

110. Smith, Calvett Hayes. "The Clinical Experience: A New Component of Urban Teacher Education Models." Chicago: Northeastern Illinois State College [1970]. 16p.
ED 040 123. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

This paper discusses recent developments in urban teacher education models, and suggests the teachers are most effective and satisfied when working with children whose ethnic and socio-economic background are similar to their own.

111. Smith, B. Othanel, and others. Teachers for the Real World. Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1969. 188p.
ED 027 267. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$6.58.

The author presents a broad outline for teacher education to deal with children of all races and backgrounds.

112. State University of New York. "FORCEP [School Four City Education Project]." Buffalo: the University [1970]. 9p.
Local collection of the Clearinghouse.

This is the description of a people-oriented program, with particular emphasis on the understanding of the child. The participants include high school students, drop-outs, undergraduates, beginning and experienced teachers, graduate students, and college professors.

113. ---. The Teacher Education Research Center. Annual Report. Fredonia: the University, 1969. 171p.
ED 038 343. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$6.58.

The general problem under consideration in this document is teacher education induction with the focus on the first teaching experience. An appendix contains details of the various TERC projects, some completed and some in progress.

114. Stinnett, T. M., ed. The Teacher Dropout. Washington, D.C.: National Education Assocation, National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, 1970. 177p.
ED 040 972. Not available from EDRS.

This collection of seven commissioned papers explores various aspects of teaching which are considered to be related to the teacher dropout problem.

115. Stone, James C. Breakthrough in Teacher Education. San Francisco, Calif.: Jossey-Bass, 1968. 206p.
ED 029 007. Not available from EDRS.

This book assesses 43 experimental teacher education programs supported by the Ford Foundation from 1958 to 1963.

116. Storen, Helen F. The First Semester: Beginning Teachers in Urban Schools. New York: City University of New York, Hunter College, 1965. 78p.
Local collection of the Clearinghouse.

This booklet is based on weekly recordings made by nine beginning junior high school teachers, who discuss their problems and try to evaluate their experiences.

117. Student National Education Association. New Teachers: New Education. Student Impact Occasional Paper. Washington, D.C.: the Association, May 1970. 31p.
ED 042 733. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-Not available.

Nine innovative programs, using different types of internship, are described by the students taking part in them.

118. Swanson, Patricia. "A Time To Teach--and a Time To Learn," Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, 52:74-84; October 1968.
ED 024 621. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$6.58.

The assistant director of NASSP's experimental project for the induction of beginning teachers draws on her experience to present major generalizations about working with new teachers.

119. Taylor, Marvin, and Stanley Dropkin. "Perceived Problems of Beginning Elementary School Teachers as Related to Student Teaching Placement and Job Location" [part of a report of the sixth annual Convocation on Educational Research, October 18-19, 1965]. 3p.
ED 013 784. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

This investigation is concerned with the association among the student teaching locale, the present job locale, and the congruence of student teaching and job locale with the perceived difficulties of beginning teachers.

120. Temple University. "A Graduate Program for the Trainers of Teacher Trainers for Leadership Roles in Urban Education." An Overview. Philadelphia: the University [1970]. 14p.
ED 039 207. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

The document outlines a doctoral program which includes extensive involvement with community agencies and supervision of student teachers in urban schools.

121. ---, College of Education. Report on the Intern Teaching Program. Philadelphia: the College, April 1967. 42p.
ED 034 723. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

This is a description of the two- or three-year intern program, with details of the courses and curriculum.

122. ---. "The Intern Teaching Program for College Graduates." Philadelphia: the College, 1968. 9p.
ED 036 478. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

A self-supporting graduate program to develop liberal arts and science graduates as secondary school teachers is described.

123. Trubowitz, Sidney. A Handbook for Teaching in the Ghetto School. Chicago, Ill.: Quadrangle Books, 1968. 173p.
ED 027 270. Not available from EDRS.

This handbook, aimed at helping a new teacher in a ghetto elementary school, exposes the problems facing ghetto teachers and presents detailed practical ways in which successful teachers have dealt with them.

124. Tuckman, Bruce W., and John L. O'Brian, eds. Preparing To Teach the Disadvantaged: Approaches to Teacher Education. New York: The Free Press, 1969. 332p.
ED 029 006. Not available from EDRS.

The document outlines characteristics and problems of the disadvantaged, identifies programs to give vocational and basic education to the disadvantaged, and describes four programs to prepare teachers to teach them.

125. Turner, Richard L. "Beginning Teacher Characteristics and Beginning Teachers Problems--Some Predictive Relationships." Bloomington: Indiana University, February 1966. 10p.
ED 015 886. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

This is part of a larger study dealing with the beginning teacher's adjustment to teaching.

126. University of Connecticut, School of Education. "A Model Program for Improving the Education of Preservice and Inservice Teachers of Elementary, Secondary and Exceptional Children in Metropolitan Areas." Interim Report. Storrs: the School, October 1968. 30p.
ED 026 290. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

The report describes procedures in a program which features community members as lecturers, students living in the urban community, and a preservice education program coordinated with an inservice program for public school personnel.

127. U.S. Department of Interior, Bureau of Indian Affairs. Helpful Hints for New BIA Teachers. Window Rock, Ariz.: the Bureau [n.d.]. 54p.
ED 040 959. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-Not available.

This series of short articles gives suggestions for new teachers of Navajo children in Arizona. Topics include a beginning teacher's first impressions, a brief description of the children's cultural background, information on tribal patterns which the teacher needs to know to be effective, and do's and don'ts of Indian etiquette, prepared by a Navajo Hopi Indian.

128. Weinstein, Gerald, and others. "Culture Shock." April 1967. 7p.
ED 012 734. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

Written from the teachers' point of view, this document recommends modifying the attitudes of teachers by altering their perceptions, providing them with direct experience within the sociocultural milieu of the ghetto schools, and requiring them to take courses in the social sciences, together with casual informal contacts with their lower-class pupils, and guided preservice experiences as means to enable teacher trainees to confront their feelings toward disadvantaged groups.

129. Weinstock, H. R., and H. E. Turner. "Philosophic Orientation, Logical Consistency, and Teaching Attitudes of Urban and Suburban Teachers." St. Louis: University of Missouri, School of Education, 1970. 24p.
ED 040 128. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

A study was undertaken to contrast the teaching attitudes of elementary and secondary school teachers in a lower socio-economic urban school district with those in a middle socio-economic suburban district.

130. Weinswig, S. Edward, and Albert I. Freedman. "HICUT '68; Design for Development." Hartford, Conn.: Hartford Public Schools, November 1968. 27p.
ED 024 660. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

This report is a projection of the continuing 1968 program and a description of the program's objectives of recognizing and meeting the unique teaching needs of an urban community by employing the necessary supportive strength of a cooperating university.

131. Westby-Gibson, Dorothy. Inservice Education--Perspectives for Educators. Berkeley, Calif.: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 1967. 82p.
ED 015 161. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

This review on current literature on inservice education covers 184 items. The sections which are relevant to this paper are pages 47-53 and the bibliography.

132. Wilhelms, Fred T. "Before the Beginning," Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, 52:137-43; October 1968.
ED 024 621. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$6.58.

This article is a reminder that what comes before the first year of teaching continues to have much influence on what that year and the following ones will be like.

133. Wilmette Public Schools. "Program for Beginning Teachers. An Individualized Approach to Inservice Education." Wilmette, Ill.: the Schools, 1969. 32p.
ED 036 458. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

An application for continuing financial assistance describes the operation of an inservice program for beginning teachers.

134. Wilson, Donald E. Teacher Corps--Urban. Cycle II, Final Program Report. Los Angeles: University of Southern California, 1969. 46p.
ED 042 689. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

This document reports a 2-year program to prepare teachers to work effectively with such diverse racial and ethnic groups as Negroes, Mexican Americans, poor whites, Japanese, Koreans, and Samoans in disadvantaged communities.

135. Wisniewski, Richard. New Teachers in Urban Schools: An Inside View. Studies in Education No. 14. New York: Random House, 1968. 241p.
ED 037 503. Not available from EDRS.

This book sketches a portrait of teaching careers in urban schools. First hand experiences of teachers and administrators are included, which are held to be of particular relevance to new teachers.

136. Yarger, Sam J. "Toledo Teacher Corps: An Undergraduate Program for the Development of Teachers for the Inner City." Toledo, Ohio: University of Toledo, College of Education, 1969. 80p.
ED 042 690. EDRS Price: MF-$0.65; HC-$3.29.

This document includes the original proposal for the Toledo Teacher Corps program and a summary description of the program halfway through its first year, in November 1969.

137. Yeshiva University, Ferkauf Graduate School of Humanities and Social Sciences. "Grant Proposal for Continuation of Federal Support of Selected Components of the Project Beacon Training Program [September 1968-August 1969]." New York: the University [1968]. 18p.
Local collection of the Clearinghouse.

The application describes a program which attempts to discover ways of preparing effective beginning teachers of socially disadvantaged children in inner-city elementary schools.

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